

# WRITTEN ENGLISH

PARKER







132/8





# WRITTEN ENGLISH

## A GRAMMAR OF ENGLISH

SPECIALLY PREPARED FOR INDIAN STUDENTS

BY

EDWARD PARKER

B.LITT. (OXON.), M.A., PH.D.

LONGMANS, GREEN & CO. LTD.

NICOL ROAD, BOMBAY

17 CHITTARANJAN AVENUE, CALCUTTA

36A MOUNT ROAD, MADRAS

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## PREFACE

WHY do such hoary errors in English as, 'my family members', 'you must be knowing me, Sir!', 'the monsoon was too heavy to-day', 'I had come this morning at 10 o'clock', 'please accept my B.Cs.', continue to be made by Indian students, generation after generation, despite all the grammar and composition teaching they get? A small book, with some such title as *Indian Errors Corrected*, which was written and published in 1889 by a Scotsman and an Englishman—Professors of English at the Elphinstone College, Bombay—captured and duly convicted and hanged a whole gang of one hundred of the worst of these malefactors over fifty years ago, and yet the rogues are as alive as ever and even appear to have multiplied.

A large part of the answer to the question posited above lies, I believe, in the unsuitability of a great many English Grammar books to Indian needs. Such books as I have in mind are either grammars of English intended for schools in England and transferred bodily to India, or else they are partial adaptations of such by the method of selection and simplification.

It is plain that such books cannot meet the needs of Indian students, who approach English from the angle of their own Indian languages and have therefore to face and overcome a multitude of problems in English which are not in ordinary English grammars, since they never present themselves to the English mind, but are due entirely to Indian vernacular constructions, word-meanings and ways of thought which are the daily use of Indian youth at home and among themselves but which will *not* go into English as they stand.

A proper grammar for Indian students must, therefore, start from the Indian student's point of view and





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A proper grammar for Indian students must, therefore, start from the Indian student's point of view and

his difficulties, not stand on some *a priori* system. Such a method would seem obvious and must have been practised for years now by innumerable Indian teachers in their English classes. It is clearly the only way to teach the English language to Indians.

The ideal text-book to implement such a method would pre-suppose an author highly competent in a dozen leading Indian languages of to-day as well as perfect in English. It is questionable also, to say the least, whether any Grammar of English will really suit both North and South India; the practicable end to aim at is an English Grammar for each main linguistic district of India and based on the linguistic peculiarities of that district.

While awaiting such a consummation, which promises years of hard work for dozens of competent grammarians of English in India, works like the present may hope for a welcome and for the hard use that is the happiest fortune of a school and college text-book.

This work, the fruit of sixteen years of teaching English to Indian students and of several years of thought and repeated revision before publication, is based on hundreds of errors in English actually made by Indian students and collected by the author—to which hundreds more from G. C. Whitworth's *Indian English* have been added by arrangement—and is an attempt to start from the Indian student's point of view in learning English and to solve his real difficulties in mastering the language. It carries memories of many years of happy association with Indian youth and is sent out with the hope of making the writing of English an easier task for the present generation of Indians in high schools and colleges.

1940.

EDWARD PARKER.



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## CHAPTER I

### NOUNS

§1. Nouns cause difficulty chiefly with their plurals, i.e., in Number. The genitive may also give trouble, and this raises the question of Case, which, as regards English usage, is far too little understood.

#### *Number*

§2. First, there are to be considered Special Groups of nouns which do not take the usual *-s* plural. Next, and much more important, are nouns with no plural or no singular, or with only a plural of different meaning from the singular.

#### SPECIAL GROUPS.

§3. Apart from those nouns which add *-es* for special reasons (e.g. *glasses, wolves, ladies, heroes*) or have double plurals (*wharfs* and *wharves*, etc.); the few with the old *-en* plural (*oxen, kine, children, brethren*); and the few more with mutated plurals (e.g. *men, teeth, mice*, etc.), the following are the main groups to remember:—

(1) Those which leave the singular unchanged, e.g. (a) nouns of measure, i.e. of number (*pair, dozen, gross, hundred*), of length (*foot, fathom, mile*), weight (*pound, stone, hundredweight*), money (*pound*) when a numeral precedes them (i.e. *five pair of socks, ten dozen eggs, six foot high, ten stone three pound, six pound sterling*); (b) in the names of some animals (*deer, sheep*); (c) in some words of specialised meaning (*counsel*, i.e. pleading



barrister); *craft*, *sail* as applied to ships; *game* and kinds of game; *cannon* when enumerating artillery; *candle-power* and *horse-power*; (d) in the words *manner*, *kind*, *sort* when followed by an *of*-adjunct as a group-plural (*all manner of things*, *these sort of people*).

(2) Adding various endings, according to differentiated meanings, e.g.: *die*—*dies* (for stamping), *dice* (for play); *genius*—*geniuses* (men of brilliance), *genii* (mythical spirits); *penny*—*pennies* (separate coins), *pence* (collective, as in *sixpence*).

(3) Taking the original plural in some foreign words, e.g.: *beau*—*beaux* (French), *datum*—*data*, *focus*—*foci*, *basis*—*bases* (all Latin). Some Latin and Greek words carry two plurals, original and English, according as they are used in a learned or an ordinary sense, e.g.: *apparatus*, *fungus*, *terminus* (-uses and -i), *memorandum* (-ums and -a), *formula* (-ae and -as), *appendix* (-ices and -ixes), *index* (-ices and -exes); and some words from other languages are used likewise, e.g.: *bandit* (-itti or -its), *prima donna* (*prime donne* or *prima donnas*), *seraph*, *cherub* (-im or -s).

(4) Compound nouns inflect the last element (*blackbirds*, *dining-rooms*, *lock-outs*, *forget-me-nots*, *spoonfuls*); compounds of noun and adverb inflect the noun (*lookers-on*, *fathers-in-law*); appositional compounds with *man-*, *woman-* inflect both parts (*men-friends*, *women-teachers*), but in non-appositional compounds the first element remains unchanged (*man-eaters*, *woman-haters*); compound titles tend to inflect the last element (*major-generals*, *Lord Justices*) but official language inflects both (*Lords Justices*); compounds of title and proper name generally inflect the last part (*the Miss Joneses*) but in formal language and in addressing letters and in enumerating members of the family the title is inflected (*Mr. and the Misses Jones*), also when different first-names follow (*the Misses Joan and Elsie Woodroffe*). Business firms use the French *Messrs.* (i.e. *Messieurs*) and *Mesdames*.

(5) Finally, there is a number of nouns denoting Composite Objects which have no singular but only a plural



form. These may represent articles of dress (*trousers, pants, spectacles, academics*), tools or instruments (*scissors, gallows, compasses, scales*), places, buildings, or institutions (*archives, barracks, environs, stairs, quarters, lodgings, East Indies*), parts of the body (*brains, gums, whiskers*), doings and occupations (*nuptials, billiards, auspices, theatricals, annals, tidings, goings-on*), and one solitary word *teens* (e.g. 'he is still in his teens.')

### *Errors in Plurals of Special Groups*

These occur occasionally in either (a) Nouns of measure, or (b) Foreign words, or (c) Fixed expressions.

#### (a) *Nouns of Measure.*

Error 1. I am an old man now, carrying the burden of three *scores* and ten years on my shoulders, should be *score*, being a measure of time.

#### (b) *Foreign Words.*

Error 2. We cannot reach an enlightened decision from *this data*, should be *these data* (plural of Latin *datum*, 'a given thing').

#### (c) *Fixed Expressions.*

Error 3. He had much to say and wrote *pages after pages*.

A very common error, which the simple logic of fact ought to correct. A man can write only one page at a time, therefore *page after page*.

### THING-WORDS AND MASS-WORDS.

§4. The above terms are the invention of Professor Jespersen, and they are of great value to distinguish nouns according as they can or cannot have plurals

of the same meaning as the singular. A Thing-word is a noun standing for an object which is 'countable', i.e., which can have a plural of the same meaning as the singular. A Mass-word is a noun standing for an object which is 'uncountable', i.e., which has no plural of the same meaning as the singular. Thus, *boy, field, motor* are Thing-words, being countable (*boys, fields, motors*), but names of materials (*steel, vapour, coffee*) are Mass-words, being uncountable and having no plural of the same meaning as the singular. Abstract and Collective nouns may be either 'countable' (*weeks, ideas; libraries, nations*) or 'uncountable' (*boyhood, blueness; cattle, vermin*).

§5. Nouns may thus be classified as:—

*Thing-words* which are

- (a) material (*boys, fields, motors; crowds, libraries, nations*)
- (b) immaterial (*weeks, deeds, ideas*);

*Mass-words* which are

- (a) material (*steel, water, gold, coffee, vapour; vermin*)
- (b) immaterial (*boyhood, speed, blueness, violence, wonder*).

#### THING-WORDS.

§6. These generally cause little difficulty as regards Number, since the plural generally corresponds directly in meaning with the singular.

There are, however, thing-words which

(1) have not only a plural with the meaning of the singular but also a plural with a different meaning



(here marked 2. Note that plural 2 has no singular),  
e.g. :—

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>colour</i> 'tint'	<i>colours</i> { 1. 'tints' 2. 'military flag'
<i>custom</i> 'habit'	<i>customs</i> { 1. 'habits' 2. 'tax'
<i>effect</i> 'result'	<i>effects</i> { 1. 'results' 2. 'property'
<i>pain</i> 'suffering'	<i>pains</i> { 1. 'sufferings' 2. 'effort'
<i>premise</i> 'proposition'	<i>premises</i> { 1. 'propositions' 2. 'building'

(2) have more than one thing-sense in the singular—with corresponding plurals—but also a plural of different meaning (differentiated plural), e.g. :—

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>letter</i> { 1. 'letter of the alphabet' 2. 'epistle'	<i>letters</i> { 1. 'of the alphabet' 2. 'epistles' 3. (diff. pl.) 'literature'
<i>domino</i> { 1. 'a half-mask' 2. 'a person wearing a half-mask'	<i>dominoes</i> { 1. 'half-masks' 2. 'persons wearing half-masks' 3. (diff. pl.) 'a kind of game'

§7. Still more difficult and dangerous, there are nouns with at least one thing-sense and also a mass-sense in the singular. These have, therefore, a plural



(or plurals) of the thing-sense (or thing-senses), but no plural of the mass-sense, e.g. :—

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>abuse</i>	1. (thing-sense) 'wrong use' 2. (mass-sense) 'reproachful language'	1. <i>abuses</i> , 'wrong uses' 2. no plural
<i>advice</i>	1. (thing-sense) 'a piece of commercial information' 2. (mass-sense) 'counsel'	1. <i>advices</i> , 'pieces of commercial information' 2. no plural
<i>air</i>	1. (thing-sense) 'a tune' 2. (thing-sense) 'personal manner' 3. (mass-sense) 'the atmosphere'	1. <i>airs</i> , 'tunes' 2. <i>airs</i> , 'personal manners', 'proud behaviour' 3. no plural
<i>issue</i>	1. (thing-sense) 'result' 2. (mass-sense) 'progeny'	1. <i>issues</i> , 'results' 2. no plural
<i>practice</i>	1. (thing-sense) 'habitual act' 2. (mass-sense) 'exercise of a profession'	1. <i>practices</i> , 'habitual acts' 2. no plural
<i>speed</i>	1. (thing-sense) 'a rate of quickness' 2. (mass-sense) 'quickness'	1. <i>speeds</i> , 'rates of quickness' 2. no plural

Nouns in this group are treated as mass-words with a differentiated plural, since it is the mass-sense in the singular that is more common, and therefore the plural thing-sense acts as a plural of differentiated meaning to it.

### MASS-WORDS—THE DIFFERENTIATED PLURAL.

§8. It is mass-words which give trouble with regard to Number, since a great number of them have so-called Differentiated Plurals.

Some nouns have no plural at all, even of a different meaning from the singular. Examples are such

abstracts as *scenery*, *poetry*, *excise*, *bombast*, or collectives such as *bunting*, *fencing*, *mankind*. Such may be called Mass-words without a differentiated plural.

§9. A great many mass-words, however, do appear in the plural form, but with a meaning different from the singular. These plurals have, of course, a thing-sense and are called Differentiated Plurals.

For instance, in the pairs of sentences :—

- |   |                                       |
|---|---------------------------------------|
| { | <i>Water</i> is necessary to life.    |
| { | There are many German <i>waters</i> . |
| { | <i>Tin</i> is found in Cornwall.      |
| { | He bought two <i>tins</i> of jam.     |

it is clear that *water* and *tin* have different meanings, respectively from *waters* and *tins*. Further, the sense in the singular is a 'mass-sense' and *water* and *tin* are mass-words, while in the plural the sense is a 'thing-sense' and *waters* and *tins* are thing-words.

*Waters* and *tins* are two cases, then, of the Differentiated Plural, that is, the plural which has a different meaning from the singular *water* and *tin*.

§10. Further examples of mass-words with differentiated plurals are here given, according to the above division of mass-words into material and immaterial :—

(a) *Material Mass-words.*

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>air</i> , 'atmosphere'	<i>airs</i> , 'proud behaviour'
<i>ash</i> (technical use, 'cigarette ash')	<i>ashes</i> (general use, 'the ashes in the grate')
<i>bitter</i> , 'ale'	✓ <i>bitters</i> , 'a medicine for the stomach'
<i>copper</i> (the metal)	<i>coppers</i> , 'pennies, half-pennies'



SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>heaven</i> , 'abode of God'	<i>heavens</i> , 'sky' (poetical)
<i>iron</i> (the metal)	<i>irons</i> , 'fetters' and other instruments of iron.
<i>physic</i> , 'medicine'	<i>physics</i> , 'physical science'
<i>salt</i> , 'sodium chloride'	<i>salts</i> , 'smelling salts'
<i>silk</i> (the material)	✓ <i>silks</i> , 'silken clothes', 'kinds of silk'
<i>sky</i> , 'the firmament'	<i>skies</i> (in one sense) 'the extreme' ('praise to the skies')
<i>vapour</i> , 'gaseous effluence'	✓ <i>vapours</i> , 'a fit of melancholy'

(b) *Immaterial Mass-words.*

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
<i>attention</i> , 'power of attending'	<i>attentions</i> , 'special courtesies' (to a lady)
<i>compass</i> , 'scope'	<i>compasses</i> , 'instrument for describing circles'
<i>damage</i> , 'injury'	✓ <i>damages</i> , 'compensation for injury'
<i>force</i> , 'energy'	<i>forces</i> , 'military troops', 'amounts of force'
<i>regard</i> , 'respect'	<i>regards</i> , 'messages of respect'
<i>writing</i> , 'handwriting'	<i>writings</i> , 'literary works'

*Errors in Number with Mass-Words*

When mass-words come to be used, errors in number are very common, normally because such words are not recognized as having no plural at all or else no plural of the same meaning as the singular.

(1) *Mass-Words without a Differentiated Plural.*

The mistake with these is to use them as thing-words, either in the singular or in the plural.



(a) *As Thing-Words in the Singular.*

Error 4. From the top of Malabar Hill there is visible a fine *scenery*.

*Scenery* is a collective mass-word describing the whole view from a given point, here from the top of Malabar Hill. It cannot have a (= 'one') in front of it, since that would make it countable. Either drop the *a* and write *there is visible fine scenery*, or else keep the *a* and substitute a thing-word of similar meaning to *scenery*, e.g., *there is visible a fine view* (or *scene*).

(b) *As Thing-Words in the Plural.*

Here mistakes are made with both material and immaterial mass-words. One example of each will suffice.

Error 5. The *machineries* of motor-cars must be often cleaned.

The material mass-word *machinery* ('the whole of a mechanism') has no plural. In India it is also a common error to speak of the 'machine' of a motor-car, when the true name in English is 'engine'. Therefore, write here either *The machinery* or *The engines*, according as either a singular or a plural is required.

Error 6. The world is full of *miseries*, worries and hardships.

The immaterial mass-words *worry* and *hardship* have differentiated plurals *worries* and *hardships* ('worrying or difficult circumstances or incidents') which may be in the right place here, but the immaterial mass-word *misery* has no plural at all. It would be best to put all three words in the singular—*The world is full of misery, worry and hardship*.

(2) *Mass-Words with a Differentiated Plural.*

With these either of two kinds of error is possible, i.e. (a) to use the singular with the mass-sense when the plural with the differentiated thing-sense is required, or (b) conversely, to use the plural with the differentiated thing-sense when the singular with the mass-sense is required.

(a) *Singular Mass-Sense for Plural Thing-Sense.*

Error 7. If the trouble is about the *finance*, we may assure Government that it can be got over.

*Finance* in the singular is a mass-word meaning 'the science of money'. Evidently, that is not what the writer means, but rather *finances*, the differentiated plural with the thing-sense 'money'.

Error 8. I have warned my people about the dire *consequence* of continued slavery.

*Consequence* is, first of all, a mass-word with the sense 'importance' (e.g. 'a man of consequence'). It has also a secondary thing-sense in the singular 'result', but this is used when only one possible result is thought of. *Continued slavery* may have several results, hence the plural of this thing-sense, *consequences*, is required.

(b) *Plural Thing-Sense for Singular Mass-Sense.*

It is under this heading that the greatest number of errors in Number occur, simply through not recognizing the difference between a thing-sense and a mass-sense.

Error 9. The Nagar Grihasthas have taken a step forward as far as the question of foreign *travels* is concerned.

*Travels* in the plural has the differentiated thing-sense of actual journeys accomplished. What is required here is the singular mass-word *travel*, meaning travelling in general.

Error 10. Some men students wear very rich *dresses*.

The writer is here making his men students wear female clothes, which is the meaning of the differentiated plural *dresses*. He should have put the singular *dress*, meaning 'clothing' in the mass-sense, or else *clothes* if he wants a plural suitable for men as well as women.

Error 11. The Alderney cow was dressed in gray *flannels*.

This, from a student's account of an incident in Mrs. Gaskell's *Cranford*, means that the cow was dressed either in kinds of gray flannel or in gray cricketing clothes, which



are the two differentiated plural meanings of *flannels*. What he meant was the material *flannel* in the singular mass-sense.

Error 12. The house was full of cobwebs and *soots*.

*Soots* means 'various kinds of soot', which is scarcely what the house was full of. What was in it was rather *soot* in the mass-sense.

Error 13. They run into *debts*.

*Debts* are 'actual sums of money owing', the differentiated thing-plural. People do not run into them but into *debt*, i.e. the general state of indebtedness, the mass-sense in the singular.

Error 14. The foreign elements are easily assimilated and made *parts and parcels* of our beings.

*Parts* are particular sections of an object and *parcels* are 'packages'. Surely, our beings have not such things inside them! But foreign elements may be made *part and parcel* of our beings, i.e. incorporated in a general sense.

#### INDIVIDUALIZATION AND CONCRETION.

§11. Sometimes it is necessary to speak of a part of a mass-object while still using the mass-word for it. For instance, *furniture* describes the interior furnishings of a house or room, and a *piece of furniture* describes any part of the mass *furniture* without specifying whether a chair, table, picture, etc., is being spoken of.

§12. By this method, i.e. of adding a *piece of*, a *bit of*, a *stroke of*, an *act of* in front of certain mass-words, these mass-words can be converted into thing-words, or rather thing-phrases. This method is called Concretion. By means of it, what is general or abstract can now be spoken of as individual. These thing-phrases have also plurals. A mass-word can, in many cases, be used by this means with great freedom in both the singular and the plural.

Examples of such mass-words are : *money, honesty, justice, kindness* (and many other qualities of the mind), *information, advice* (and words of kindred meaning), *luck, fortune, policy* (and other words expressing human behaviour), *fun*.

These can be concretized as : *a piece of money, a piece of honesty, an act of kindness, a piece of information, a bit of luck, a stroke of policy, a bit of fun*; and each of these phrases can be used in the plural : *pieces of money, acts of kindness, bits of luck, strokes of policy*.

§13. Among these mass-words there is a group, chiefly ending in *-ness* and expressing human qualities or conditions, which can be concretized immediately by putting *a* or *the* in front of them and which, as thing-words, can have plurals, e.g.:—

He has done me *a kindness*, many *kindnesses*.

§14. Finally, a few other mass-words are now used also as thing-words in the singular and plural by direct concretion, e.g.: *thickness* ('paper has many thicknesses'), *likeness* (meaning 'portrait'), *business* (i.e., 'occupation'), *luxury* (i.e., 'an article of luxury').

### *Errors in Concretion*

The errors under this head arise from using mass-words as thing-words by direct concretion, i.e. by putting *a* or a numeral in front of the mass-word or by using it in the plural. Thus,

Error 15. She gave them her last *advices*, should be *pieces of advice*;

Error 16. The Vice-Chancellor rose amid *applauses*, should be *rounds of applause*.



## Case

§15. Case is the form which a noun takes according to its use in a sentence. English nouns have only two case-forms—the Common Case and the Genitive.

### COMMON CASE.

§16. The common Case performs the functions of a subject or object (direct or indirect) of a sentence :—

His *brother* (subj.) gave *Krishna* (ind. obj.) a *sithar* (dir. obj.).

or of an adverb adjunct, either with or without preposition :—

Last *week* (adv. adjt. without prep.) he promised him one for his *birthday* (adv. adjt. with prep.).

or of a predicative adjunct referring to subject or object :—

We think him a very fond *brother* (referring to obj. *him*).

In fact, the function of an English noun in the common case can be judged only by its position in the sentence (Word-Order).

### GENITIVE CASE—ATTRIBUTIVE ADJUNCT.

§17. The genitive implies possession, so that most nouns in English (i.e., names of inanimates) have no genitive. Those nouns (persons, animals, seasons), which have a genitive normally take it only in the singular, because the singular and plural genitives sound alike in speech and cause confusion. The genitive is, therefore, very restricted in use. It is marked by adding 's to the common case in the singular; in the plural by 's in nouns not ending in s in

the plural (*men's*, etc.), but by the apostrophe alone when the plural is in *s* :—

The *farmer's* boy got his *horses'* provender from several *seedsmen's* shops.

(With nouns ending in a hissing sound in the singular, the practice was formerly to add only the apostrophe for the genitive singular:—*Mars' Hill*, *Aeschylus' plays*, *Achilles' heel*, and this practice has become permanent in such traditional cases. Now, however, it is the practice to add the *'s* in such circumstances:—*St. James's Palace*, *Mr Williams's house*, *Charles's Wain*.)

### PREPOSITIONAL ADJUNCT WITH *OF*.

§18. Another way<sup>2</sup> of expressing possession is by using an *of*-phrase immediately after the name of the object possessed :—

He determined to comply with the wishes *of his people* in which his *people* possesses *wishes*. This is not a genitive, but is called the Prepositional Adjunct with *of*.

### GROUP-NOUNS AND GROUP-GENITIVE.

§19. With compound nouns and nouns composed of a word-group (Group-Nouns) the practice is to add *'s* to the final part :—*father-in-law's*, *Palmer the confectioner's*, *somebody else's*, *in half an hour's time*. But when the word-group is long or complicated and the genitive *'s* would cause confusion, the Prepositional Adjunct with *of* is substituted :—*the fame of Mr. F. E. Smith (later Lord Birkenhead)* rather than *Mr. F. E. Smith (later Lord Birkenhead)'s fame*, and *the opinion of the Times of India* rather than *the Times of India's opinion*. The genitive of a group-noun is known as the Group-Genitive.



### *Error with the Group-Genitive*

Error 17. He gave an account of the obedience of  
*one of our acquaintances' wife.*

*One of our acquaintances* is evidently too long a group to carry the genitive and, moreover, *acquaintances'* sounds like the singular *acquaintance's*. Substitute the *of*-construction:—*the obedience of the wife of one of our acquaintances.*

### USES AND TYPES OF THE GENITIVE.

§20. The genitive ('s) is used only (1) with names of persons, (2) often with names of animals, (3) with nouns of measure, (4) in literary English only (usually poetry), with names of inanimates and with abstracts.

#### (1) *Names of Persons.*

##### (a) *The Pre-Genitive—Subjective and Objective Genitive*

§21. The commonest use is as an adjective coming before the headword, i.e., as a Pre-Genitive:—

*My uncle's property. Lord Edward Gleichen's letter to the 'Times'.*

Since *my uncle's property* means 'my uncle has a property', the genitive here has the force of the subject of a sentence with the headword (here *property*) as the object. A Pre-Genitive has, therefore, normally the force of a so-called Subjective Genitive.

Occasionally, however, the noun in the genitive may have the force of the object of a full sentence, e.g., *my uncle's opponents* means 'those who oppose my uncle', and *uncle's* is here a so-called Objective Genitive. This use is fairly common in journalism, but may lead to confusion with the subjective sense.

Careful speakers and writers, therefore, use the Prepositional adjunct with *of* to express the objective relation.

### *Error with the Pre-Genitive*

#### Error 18. *Mr. Thakkar's interview*

So ran an actual headline in a newspaper. The journalist seems to have thought that *interview* takes *of* and that, instead of saying *interview of Mr. Thakkar*, he could say *Mr. T.'s interview*. But *interview* takes *with*, and not even an objective genitive is possible. Re-write as *Interview with Mr. Thakkar* or *Mr. Thakkar interviewed*.

### (b) *The Independent Genitive*

§22. A second use of the genitive is alone, i.e., without a headword but referring to it :—

If you haven't got an umbrella, take *my brother's*.

Here *brother's* is a genitive standing alone but referring to its headword *umbrella*. This is called the Independent Genitive.

This extremely useful form of the genitive can be used as either subject or object or predicative in a sentence :—

My *father's* (subj.) was a very flourishing business.

✓ I considered *Mr. Deodhar's* (obj.) an excellent speech.

The best picture in the exhibition was *Mr. Dhurandhar's* (pred.).

The Independent Genitive has two sub-forms, viz. the Absolute Genitive and the Post-Genitive (or Appositional Genitive).

#### (b) (i) *The Absolute Genitive*

§23. When no headword is mentioned in the sentence, the Independent Genitive can still be used, but



the headword is then understood to be a place (shop, business, institution, house) regularly associated with the person in the genitive:—

We must send to the *doctor's* for medicine and the *druggist's* for cotton-wool.

This sub-form of the Independent Genitive is called the Absolute Genitive.

(b) (ii) *The Post-Genitive or Appositional Genitive*

§24. This other sub-form of the Independent Genitive is so called because it comes after (Latin *post* 'after') its headword or because it expresses a relation of apposition between genitive and headword. It is also distinguished by being always preceded by the preposition *of*. Examples of it are the following:—

A ring *of my sister's*.

This ring *of my sister's*.

Another ring *of my sister's*.

This peculiar English construction has come about in the following way. In Word-Order, if both a genitive and another adjective qualify a noun, the genitive normally comes first and the other adjective second, e.g.: *my sister's new ring*. But there are some adjectives, viz., *a, the, this, that*, and the indefinite adjectives (*some, many*, etc.), which refuse to go second, e.g., one cannot say *my sister's a ring*, etc. English gets over this difficulty by putting the genitive after the headword and attaching it to the latter with the preposition *of*, as shown above.

§25. This *of* is appositional in force, i.e., *This ring of my sister's* means *This ring* (viz.) *my sister's*, and has the same value as the *of* in such expressions as *The City of London* (i.e., 'The city which is London'), *All of us* ('we all'), *The three of us* ('we three'). Note

particularly that this appositional *of* is quite different from the partitive sense of *of* in *Some of us*, *Three of us*, which mean 'some from amongst us', 'three from amongst us'. *This ring of my sister's* does not mean 'this ring from amongst my sister's rings' because it would also be used if she had only one ring.

§26. The Post-Genitive is used also, with a plural headword, with indefinite meaning :

These are letters *of my father's*

which means an indefinite number of letters belonging to or written by my father, while *These are my father's letters* would mean certain letters belonging to or written by him.

### *Error with the Independent Genitive*

Error 19. He is reported to have cursed *that Macaulay's minute* which has been our emancipation.

Here *that* appears to qualify *Macaulay*, but is really meant to qualify *minute*, which is also qualified by the genitive *Macaulay's*. In such a case, make the genitive follow the headword *minute* as a Post-Genitive:—*that minute of Macaulay's*.

### (2) *Names of Animals.*

#### *Pre-Genitive and Independent Genitive*

§27. Names of animals, being also animates, are also commonly used in the Pre-Genitive, always with an attributive meaning:—

How silky this *dog's* ears are!

The Independent Genitive can also occasionally be used with names of animals:—

He has eyes as sharp as a *lynx's*.



### (3) *Nouns of Measure.*

#### *Pre-Genitive*

§28. Nouns of measure, especially of time and distance, are, in practice, used in the genitive and are almost fixed expressions:—

Come back in *half an hour's* time.

I've done a good *day's* work to-day.

These are last *season's* apples.

It's a three *hours'* run by car from here.

With these nouns the genitive is always attributive, but it is not a true possessive like the genitive of persons and animals, i.e., the genitive could not act as subject of a supposed sentence with the headword as object ('half an hour' does not possess 'time' nor does 'season' possess 'apples'). It differs also from the true possessive in that an adjective preceding the genitive does not necessarily belong to the genitive but may belong to the headword; thus, while *my father's books* means 'the books of my father', *my last year's results* means 'my results of last year'. Similarly, the headword is not made definite by this genitive as by the true possessive, e.g.:—*my father's study* means 'the study of my father', but *an hour's ride* means 'a ride of an hour'.

#### *Error with Genitive with nouns of Measure*

Error 20. I have had also an experience of *three years* as accountant.

This should, of course, be a *three years' experience*.

### (4) *Literary English.*

#### *Pre-Genitive with Inanimates*

§29. In literary English the genitive is used

frequently with names of inanimates and abstractions, which thereby obtain imaginative life :—

Where mingles *war's* rattle (Sir W. Scott).

The *rainbow's* glory is shed (Shelley).

. . . the *night's* starred face (Keats).

That *thought's* return (Wordsworth).

and journalism, especially for effectiveness in headlines, uses it a great deal :—

*Germany's* Next Move.

*Birmingham's* Anti-Slum Campaign.

'S or OF? (*Genitive or Prepositional Adjunct?*)

§30. Students learning English often find it difficult to know when to use the genitive 's and when the prepositional adjunct with *of*. Here follows a summary of directions for their guidance.

The 's construction, as shown above, is used :—

- (1) with names of persons;
- (2) with names of animals (often);
- (3) with nouns of measure;
- (4) in literary English, with some nouns denoting things, with the effect that they become partially alive.

§31. The *of*-construction is *permissive* :—

(a) with the names of persons in the objective genitive, e.g. :—*I will undertake the teaching of the child* is better than *I will undertake the child's teaching*.

(b) with names of persons in a plural ending in -s in order to show the genitive relation clearly, e.g. :—*the clothes of my brothers* is better than *my brothers' clothes* because it makes *brothers* clearly plural when spoken.

(c) with long group-genitives of persons, e.g. :—*the signal of the policeman at the corner* and *he is the father of Hira and Jayadeva* are better than *the*



policeman at the corner's signal and he is Hira and Jayadeva's father or he is Hira's and Jayadeva's father.

§32. The *of*-construction is obligatory:—

(1) with nouns denoting things, e.g.:—*the lid of the kettle* (or a compound *the kettle lid*), but not *the kettle's lid*;

(2) with collective nouns and with adjectives and participles converted into nouns:—*the proper feeding of cattle*, not *the cattle's proper feeding*; and *the joys of riding* and *the troubles of the rich*, not *riding's joys* nor *the rich's troubles*;

(3) even with names of persons and animals when they are qualified by adjectives that cannot come before the noun or by a clause:—*the property of a man who has gone abroad* and *the care of children neglected by their parents*;

(4) where the *of* is non-possessive, i.e., where it is partitive or appositional or part of a title or is equal to 'from':—*the majority of the students* (partitive), *the lake of Windermere* (appositional), *the king of England* (title), *he took leave of his friends* (means 'from').

*Errors with 'S or OF (Genitive or Prepositional Adjunct)*

Error 21. The charge of *life's* destruction.

*Life* is the name of a thing and has no genitive. Rewrite as *the destruction of life*. (Even if a person's or animal's name were substituted, e.g. *mosquitoes' destruction*, the *of*-construction would be much preferable, since the genitive is objective.)

Error 22. He took his *friend's* leave.

A very common error. In the phrase *to take leave of*, the *of* is non-possessive and means 'from'. Hence its object (*friend*) cannot be in the genitive (possessive). Correct as *He took leave of his friend*.

## Gender

§33. The gender of a noun in English is only of importance when it has to be referred to in the singular by one of the personal pronouns *he, she, it*.

In this case, of course, English nouns follow so-called natural gender, but there are conditions under which animates may be treated as inanimates or inanimates as animates.

### (a) Names of Persons

§34. With very young children, masculine personal pronouns are applied if the speaker does not know the child's sex.

The neuter pronoun is used for persons under either of two conditions:—

(i) In identification, i.e., answering an actual or supposed question 'Who is it?' :—

Who's at the door? *It's Mr. Smith.*

(ii) To express a playful or contemptuous attitude, suggesting a reduction of the person spoken of to the inanimate class :—

Poor little thing! Did *it* tumble down and hurt *itself*!

What a shame!

What's the new housemaid like? *It's* a poor worker, I'm afraid.

### (b) Names of Animals

§35. Though names of animals may be treated as neuters, domestic animals, through constant association with human beings, often have personal gender given them, and then according to sex :—

Have you seen the yellow hen and *her* chickens?

Cats (*Tabby*) and parrots (*Poll*) are regarded as feminine, unless given masculine names.



So, likewise, animals of the chase often acquire personal gender—generally masculine, since the female is not usually hunted:—*elephant, buffalo, deer, fox*.

(c) *Names of Inanimates*

§36. Again, by constant human association, names of ships and machines are often used as feminines:—

Is the mailboat in yet? No, *she's* expected in an hour.

Among machines so treated are *engine, train, aeroplane, car*, even *piano*:—

I do like your new car! *She's* a beauty!

(d) *In Literary English*

§37. Professional writers may give personal gender to places, institutions, seasons, etc., generally according to their gender in Latin—the scholar's language in Europe formerly. So *Nature* may be feminine, countries feminine, seasons masculine, rivers masculine.

The stars often take the gender of their classical names: the sun is masculine, the moon feminine; Jupiter, Uranus, Neptune, Mercury and Mars are masculine, Venus feminine.

## EXERCISES ON NOUNS

Correct errors in the following sentences according to the Section (Number, etc.) given, after reading again the paragraphs indicated:—

§§2-10. *Number*.

### A. NUMBER IN THING-WORDS

1. Mr. Umiashankar Lakhia, the 73 years old leader of Patan, met me.

2. I was on the field and saw men after men brought back on stretchers.
3. Cities after cities surrendered without any show of resistance.
4. The decline in the number of students is alarming, and schools after schools are being closed every month.
5. He poured out paragraphs after paragraphs.

### B. NUMBER IN MASS-WORDS

#### (a) *Mass-Words without a Differentiated Plural.*

1. A ballad is a real and sincere poetry.
2. Cricket is a good play.
3. Receptacles are put up for the deposit of fruit peels.
4. The city was gay with buntings.
5. Are they not the offsprings of immigrants from India?
6. They clothed their sermons in garbs suited to the common taste.
7. They will ignore both the protestations and the bombasts.
8. To redeem it from the oft-repeated but ill-merited odiums.

#### (b) *Mass-Words with a Differentiated Plural.*

1. He demanded that Mr. X. should tender an apology for his words or take the consequence.
2. He condemns the class distinction of the age.
3. He incurs their abuses.
4. We cannot devote all our attentions to this subject as we should like to.
5. A rich Zemindar had two wives, from one of whom he had issues.
6. His houses are masterpieces of constructions.
7. Morris had great respects for Ruskin and his writings.
8. They are persons with apparently very blurred and impracticable visions.
9. There should be no more such examples with the progress of times.
10. Let us not find faults with the preachers.



11. Prizes are being awarded for articles of exceptional merits.

12. The poets think that all things must work according to laws.

13. He examined the book in details.

14. This action is a protest against police actions in regard to non-violent persons.

15. Several persons courted arrests.

16. He has on occasions even ignored our interests.

17. No amount of efforts on their part would make us renounce our decision.

18. Feelings ran very high owing to obstruction to the bill.

19. She showed her affections towards him in her correspondence.

20. Students should be sent to foreign countries for studies.

21. The English practice of giving board and lodgings in the colleges is very good.

22. Professor X. was noted for the good instructions which he gave his classes.

23. A loud yell of execrations was set up.

24. Resolutions were adopted at the meeting to check extravagances on marriages.

25. The external ornaments of this building are carved in stones or in marbles.

26. Even if thousands were clapped in jails the movement would not slacken.

27. Games and such things are to them now forbidden fruits.

28. Such speeches add fresh fuels to the fire of popular ill-feeling.

29. He had with him a bag of silvers.

### §§11-14. C. *Individualization and Concretion.*

There was one advice of Lord Hardinge which ought to be taken to heart by all.

## §§ 15-32. D. Case.

1. I am under Mr. Y's. obligation.
2. The Conference recommends them to adopt their stringent social boycott.
3. Ruskin writes this in his chapter of 'Vision and Knowledge.'
4. This is my another sister-in-law.

## TEST PAPERS 1—(NOUNS)

## I A

1. Note and explain any peculiarities of gender and number in the following passage from an English newspaper :—

'It is understood that Russia is prepared to join the League of Nations providing the United States of America also indicates its intentions of becoming a member. Following the negotiations in Paris, the Soviet has enquired what status she would enjoy if she entered the League. The Soviet are enquiring also if the United States will promise to enter the League if the Soviet announce their intention to join at the September Assembly of the League.'

2. Make any necessary corrections in the nouns of the following sentences, and explain briefly your corrections :—

(a) His suggestions about the Swadeshi movement were really full of meanings.

(b) Peasant women attended the meeting in good number.

(c) This has been described by Tennyson in his poem of 'Maud'.

(d) Barbarike exported silk threads, Saurashtra exported grains and cotton.

(e) The tree is not always to be judged by its fruits.

(f) Some boys go to school to play mischiefs.

(g) Students should, if needs be, be taught politics as a science.

(h) Certain matters of details were suggested by some members of the Congress.



- (j) He attacked me with the coarsest abuses.
- (k) In his book he praises the conditions and outlooks of the people.
- (l) On furnishing the proper bails, the persons were released.
- (m) Buddhism began to achieve victories after victories over its rivals.

### I B

3. Give definitions of (a) a Collective Noun, (b) a Mass-Word. Make any necessary correction in the following sentence, explaining the corrections you make:—

He managed to amass a good amount of wealth.

4. What is a Differentiated Plural? Give—not from this book, but from your own discoveries—six examples of nouns with a differentiated plural, and supply meanings to the singular and plurals of each noun.

### I C

5. What is meant by an Objective Genitive? What dangers attend the use of it? What is your opinion of the genitives in the following two sentences:—

My countrymen will surely have heard of Dharasana's harrowing tales.

To many people the word compromise is hateful, not to speak of its discussion.

6. Explain briefly what is meant by the Appositional or Post-Genitive, and say when it must be used. Make, and explain, any corrections necessary in the following sentences:—

Peacemakers' another pilgrimage to Simla.

Mr. X. is our member.

It is none of his concern.

Humayun's another device was to split up the Departments of State.

## CHAPTER II

### USES OF *THE* AND *A*

#### *The*

§38. The Definite Article *the* is historically a weakened form of the demonstrative pronoun *that*, and its peculiar business is to point out a noun which is in some way particularized or rendered unique. It is used also before adjectives acting as nouns or expressing comparison between two conditions or cases.

#### BEFORE NOUNS.

§39. *The* is used before nouns when they are particularized in any of the following four ways:—

(i) By uniqueness in themselves. This means that the noun stands for the only object of its kind:—

(Singular Nouns) *the* Mint. *the* sun. *the* earth. *the* sky. *the* devil (but 'God' without article), *the* Bible. *the* Bhagvadgita. *the* Koran. *the* Times (but 'Punch'). *the* Atlantic. *the* Deccan. *the* Punjab. *the* Crimea. *the* Ukraine. *the* Thames. *the* Ganges.

(Meaning 'the best' or 'the typical'):—

Mr. X. would be *the* doctor for you.

She is too much *the* lady to do such a thing.

(Plural Nouns) *the* Himalayas. *the* East Indies. *the* Azores. *the* Heavens. *the* Scriptures.

§40. (ii) By representing a class. The single specimen here stands for the whole of its kind:—

*The* elephant is remarkable for its trunk, *the* giraffe for its neck.



*The* throne (*the* Crown), *the* pen and *the* sword are the chief powers of political life.

*The* annual fair was everyone's delight. *The* townsman found relaxation, *the* countryman business.

(Plural):—In autumn *the* leaves fall from *the* trees.

§41. (iii) By previous reference, either (a) actual, or (b) understood. This means that speaker and hearer have one particular object only in mind out of many of its kind.

(a) *The* battle was won by the support given by *the* infantry to *the* cavalry.

Never *the* time and *the* place and *the* loved one all together (Browning).

*The* Joneses: *The* Misses Williamson.

An ignorant man inherited an ancient manuscript.

Not guessing its value, *the* man sold *the* manuscript for practically nothing.

(b) She has gone up *the* street to *the* baker's.

A cold on *the* chest may be dangerous.

(Beginning of a story, if the person is named by his profession).—‘It all happened long ago’, said *the* forestry inspector, ‘yet, to this day, it gives me a strange feeling to think of it.’

§42. (iv) By definition by (a) an adjective or a noun in apposition, (b) an attributive phrase, with a preposition or in apposition, or an adjective clause. This means that the noun is made single of its kind by a description of it in the words that immediately precede or follow it.

(a) Fourteenth century England had for kings *the* powerful Edward I, *the* incompetent Edward II, *the* grandiose Edward III, *the* unfortunate Richard II, and *the* cautious Henry IV.

*The* Kathiawar States. *The* Congress Party.

*The* man-power question. *The* Indian Constitution.

*The* whole world.\* *The* preceding question.

*The usual period. The last five years.*

*The best fathers have sometimes the worst sons.*  
(*The follows both, double, half*):—Both *the* boys.

*Double the sum. Half the time.*

*The planet Venus. The boy Jack.*

(b) *The land of Palestine. The continent of Asia.*

*The bay of Bengal. (But cape, lake and mount do not take the, except The Mount of Olives.)*

*The philosophy of Sankaracharya. The man in the street.*

*He fought for the civil liberties of his forefathers.*

*Sven Hedin, the pioneer among present-day explorers of Central Asia.*

*This is the friend of whom I spoke to you yesterday.*

Great care must be taken, under (b) above, that the phrase or clause does really define the noun so as to make it unique. In the following example, for instance, the clause does not make the noun it qualifies unique, whence *a* instead of *the*:—

*This is a friend of whom I have often spoken to you.*

#### BEFORE ADJECTIVES.

§43. Adjectives require *the* before them under any of the following conditions:—

(i) when they function as plural nouns covering a class. This means that the adjective includes *all* objects which it describes. In this case, it refers only to human beings:—

*Everyone came—the lame, the halt and the blind.*

In literary English, a singular noun can function in the same way:—

*None but the brave deserves the fair (Dryden).*

§44. (ii) when they function as singular nouns to represent abstractions, or when they come near to



being a concrete noun. The former use as abstractions is common in philosophy :—

*the beautiful, the good and the true.*  
*the known and the unknown.*  
*the incredible has happened.*

The latter use is shown by the following :—

He never does *the* ordinary or *the* expected.  
 I don't allow people to get *the* best of me easily.

§45. (iii) when they function as nouns to denote nationality :—

*the English. the French. the Milanese. the Bantu.*

§46. (iv) when they give a date :—

January *the* first.

§47. *The* acts as an adverb before adjectives under certain conditions. This *the* has not the same historical origin as *the* in the examples above, but comes from an old instrumental case of *that* and means 'by that much'. The difference of origin is, however, forgotten and the adverbial uses of *the* are classed with its adjectival uses. There are three adverbial uses of *the* :—

(v) Before a few positive adjectives acting as nouns in the singular :—

*the same. the like. the country. out of the common.*  
*in the dead of night.*

§48. (vi) Before comparative adjectives expressing a proportion between two states of mind or two circumstances :—

*The more I thought of it, the less I liked it.*  
 If the return is higher, anyone will lend *the* more willingly.

§49. (vii) Before superlatives acting as adverb adjuncts :—

It does not matter (in) *the* least, (in) *the* slightest (in which 'in' may be omitted).

also in predicative adjectives to show that the superlative is used in a comparative, not an absolute, sense :—

People who stick to the beaten track are *the* most sensible.

('People who stick to the beaten track are most sensible' would mean that they are 'extremely sensible'—an absolute meaning of the superlative.)

### *Errors in the Uses of the*

Since Indian languages have no articles corresponding to *the* and *a*, errors are very commonly made by Indian students in the uses of these forms of speech. Before nouns, errors are made in every one of the conditions given above, but particularly when the noun stands for an unique object, when previous knowledge of the object represented is understood, and when the noun is defined by an adjective or an appositional noun or by an attributive phrase or clause. The following typical errors should, therefore, be carefully studied.

#### BEFORE NOUNS.

(i) *When the object represented is unique.*

Error 23. Both prisoners were taken to *Kotwali*.

Error 24. Some arrests have already been made, and prosecutions will soon begin in *courts*.

Error 25. He utilized his time in reading books, and especially *Bible*.

Error 26. Recent happenings in *Punjab*.

Only one *Kotwali* is in question, and no other courts but the law courts are in the speaker's mind, hence *the Kotwali, the courts*. There is, also, only one *Bible* and



*Punjab* has the distinction of carrying the definite article, hence *the Bible, the Punjab*.

(ii) *When the object represented stands for a whole class.*

Error 27. All this he won by the mighty arm of sword.

Apart from 'the mighty arm' being unnecessary and wrong, *sword* stands for the whole idea of military power, hence *won by the sword*.

(iii) *When the object represented has been previously referred to, or where such reference is understood.*

Error 28. Here *poet* compares England with France. should be *the poet*, for some particular poet must have been previously named.

Error 29. The crowd refused to disperse until *military* was removed from the bazaar.

Error 30. Large expensive factories seem to be *out of question* at present.

Error 31. Abdulla has been left at Bulsar on account of acute pain in *chest* caused by lathi blows.

There is no doubt what military or whose chest is meant, and only one question—that under discussion—is in mind, hence *the military, out of the question, the chest*.

(iv) *When the object represented is particularized (a) by an attributive adjective.*

Error 32. *University building* is one of the few fine architectural specimens in Bombay.

Error 33. A request has been made to the Holkar to spare him for *Baroda State*.

Error 34. The batch carried out the work of raiding *salt depot* successfully.

Error 35. The Samiti has been doing creditable work in furtherance of *Swadeshi cause*.

Error 36. These buildings produce a soft effect on *casual observer*.

Error 37. He suffered imprisonment in *civil jail*.

Error 38. The Committee instituted a comparison between *different systems* of national training in order to select the most suitable.

Error 39. Khan Abdul Ghafar Khan used a *major part* of his income in propaganda in favour of non-violence.

Error 40. The anniversary will be celebrated this year with *usual eclat*.

Error 41. Struggle, struggle was my motto *last ten years*.

In Errors 32 to 34, the nouns *building*, *State*, *depot*, can refer to only one such object because the converted adjectives (nouns used as adjectives) *University*, *Baroda*, *salt* sufficiently particularize them, wherefore *the University building*, *the Baroda State*, *the salt depot* should be written. In Errors 35 to 41, the adjectives *Swadeshi*, *casual*, *civil*, *different* (together with the attributive phrase *of national training*), *major*, *usual* and *last ten* sufficiently particularize their respective nouns and should all carry *the* in front of them.

(b) *by an attributive phrase or clause*.

Error 42. The feeling of *fear of God*.

Error 43. Among the several classes of *daughters of India*.

Error 44. They received very little of *consideration* which natural affection secures to the young.

In Errors 42 and 43, *fear* is particularized by *of God* and *daughters* by *of India*, and both require *the*. In Error 44, *consideration* is so strongly particularized by the adjective clause following that not merely *the* but *that* should be used in front of it.

#### BEFORE ADJECTIVES.

Here errors occur under two conditions mainly, i.e., when the adjective comes near to being a concrete noun and before superlatives used comparatively, not absolutely.

(i) *Before adjectives used nearly as concrete nouns*.

Error 45. A contingency which is not likely to arise in *near future*.

Error 46. These persons threw themselves into *thick* of the fight.



Both *future* and *thick* are adjectives acting nearly as concrete nouns, and *the near future* and *the thick* are correct.

(ii) *Before superlative adjectives used comparatively, not absolutely.*

Error 47. *Most interesting* development of the Ashram programme is the work among the village folk.

Error 48. One thing which pleased *most* in the address was . . . .

Error 49. The parties who ought to be *most interested* were not present.

Error 50. Of all great movements Swadeshism occupies a *most prominent* place.

In Error 47, the writer meant *the* (comparatively) *most interesting* development. He might, of course, have said *a most interesting* if he meant 'an extremely interesting', in the absolute sense. Error 50 has made *a most prominent* an absolute superlative, meaning 'an extremely prominent place', when *the most prominent*, comparatively, was required. In Errors 48 and 49, evidently the comparative superlatives *the most* and *the most interested* are intended.

## A

§50. The Indefinite Article *a* meant originally 'one' and, therefore, (i) cannot appear before Mass-words, which are 'uncountable' but may before Thing-words, which are 'countable'; (ii) is a kind of weakened 'one' or 'any' in meaning.

§51. (i) above raises the old difficulty again of whether a particular word is being used in a mass-sense or a thing-sense, for in the former case it cannot take *a*, while in the latter it may. Thus *silk* as a material cannot take *a*, but as 'a kind of silk' it becomes *a silk* (thing-word); similarly *fury* is a mass-word and takes no *a* when in the sense of 'great anger',

but in the sense of 'a state of great anger' a man can be in a *fury* (thing-word).

§52. (i) raises also the question of how words like *many*, *few*, *hundred* are being used in any given sentence. They may be used as adjectives (*many men*, *few people*, *three hundred soldiers*), but they may also be used as singular collective nouns and in this case they carry *a* before them (*a great many men*, *a few people*, *a hundred police*) though, by being placed next to the noun that follows (*men*, *people*, *police*), they look as if they were adjectives still. *Many* (originally French *meynee*, meaning 'a crowd') presents another difficult construction, viz., *many a*, noted below, in which the *a* represents an older *on*, not the word for 'one': it is singular in meaning and takes a singular noun (*many a man*).

§53. (ii) brings us to the uses of *a*. This Indefinite Article, as it is called, has the effect of generalizing the meaning of the noun it qualifies and carries the meaning of 'a kind of' or 'one such as'. Thus, in *Poverty is not a crime, nor a virtue either*, the common nouns *crime* and *virtue* are being used generically, covering the sense of 'any kind of crime' or 'any kind of virtue'. Similarly, in the sentence *Every poet is not a Shakespeare*, the proper noun *Shakespeare* is being used generically, and *a Shakespeare* means 'one such as Shakespeare'. In the sense of 'any', *a* disappears before a plural noun; in the sense of 'one', the plural requires *some*.

§54. Besides its uses with nouns, *a* has several uses with adjectives and one with pronouns. With nouns, it has four general and also four particular uses.



The whole series of uses is presented in the following scheme :—

# A. BEFORE NOUNS.

§55. (1) Before a generic singular :—

(a) in an introductory sense :—

Once upon *a* time *a* king lived in *a* castle near *a* high mountain.

(b) in an absolute sense :—

(i) where *a* is a kind of weakened 'any' :—

*A* cat does not make so good *a* friend as *a* dog.

This is the commonest use, by far, of *a*. In the plural, the *a* disappears (*Cats do not make such good friends as dogs*).

(ii) where *a* is a kind of weakened 'one' :—

I saw him walking with *a* dog.

In the plural this requires *some* (*I saw him walking with some dogs*).

(iii) when *a* has the sense of 'one such as', 'one like' :—

*An* Edward VII may have more influence over foreign policy than any foreign minister.

§56. (2) In particular circumstances :—

(a) in titles of books :—

*A* History of Indian Art.

(b) before a title plus proper name, meaning 'a certain' :—

She married *a* Captain Ward.

(c) in exclamatory sentences introduced by *what*, if the noun can regularly take the indefinite article :—

What *a* silly thing to say?

You don't know what *an* advantage you have in being rich!

(In this case, when the noun can have both a thing-sense and a mass-sense, the indefinite article will be used when it has a thing-sense but be absent when it has a mass-sense :—

What *a* great service you have rendered me !

What good service this pen has given me !)

(d) sometimes before verbs used as nouns :—to have *a wash*, *a shave*, *a smoke*, *a good cry*; to make *a move*; to give a horse *a feed*.

## B. BEFORE ADJECTIVES.

§57. (1) Before a positive or comparative adjective used with *thing* to express a concrete neuter :—

That wasn't at all *a nice thing* to say !

It would have been *a happier* and *a better thing* if he had gone at once.

§58. (2) In a few stereotyped prepositional phrases :—

All of *a sudden*. To go to *an extreme*.

## C. WITH ADJUNCTS.

§59. (1) After adjuncts of number and quantity :—*half an army*, *many a day*, *twice a week*, etc. In the last two of these, the *a* was originally the preposition *on*, but is now regarded as the indefinite article.

§60. (2) After an adjective preceded by *so*, *how*, *as*, *too*, *no less*, *no more* :—

*How great an error* !

He is *as fine a man* as I have ever seen.

*So determined an effort* deserves to succeed.

It was *too low a position* for such a person.

*No more terrible an event* has occurred within living memory.



§61. (3) After *such*, *quite* and *not* :—

It was *quite* a good speech.

I haven't seen him for *quite* a year; he's *quite* a stranger.

We had *such* a time at the meeting! *Such* an enthusiastic audience!

He is *not* an ordinary boy.

With *quite* and *such*, the noun which follows may be qualified or not; with *not*, it must be qualified.

#### D. BEFORE PRONOUNS.

§62. Before *other* when it refers to one of several :—

One man tells *another*, and so the story grows.

### *Errors with the Uses of A*

#### A. BEFORE NOUNS.

(1) Before a generic singular

(a) In an introductory sense :—

Error 51. There was *time* in Europe when similar institutions were in their infancy.

This makes *time* a mass-word, an abstraction (as in the lines *Time, like an ever-rolling stream, Bears all its sons away*), but here it is an occasion or period of time, a thing-word, hence *a time*.

(i) *a* is a kind of weakened 'any' :—

Error 52. These demonstrations proved beyond *doubt* that . . . .

No abstract doubt is in question here (mass-word), but a general feeling of doubt (thing-word), therefore *a doubt*.

(ii) *a* is a kind of weakened 'one' :

It is under this head that mistakes are the commonest.

Error 53. The car then retreated and collided with the despatch-rider on *motor cycle* which was following it.

This concrete single motor-cycle is *a motor-cycle*.

Error 54. The Congress should organize itself on *elective basis*.

Error 55. During more than *quarter* of a century.

Error 56. This is commonplace *saying*.

*Basis, quarter* and *saying* are, as nouns, always thing-words requiring *a* or *the* in the singular. Here they are generalized and should be *an elective basis, a quarter of a century, a commonplace saying*.

Error 57. This has caused great *sensation* in the city.

*Sensation* without an article is an abstract mass-word, meaning 'the power of feeling'. Here, however, we have the concrete thing-word, meaning 'a wave of excitement', in a general sense, hence *a sensation*.

Error 58. We have undergone *great many* difficulties.

Error 59. He describes *good many* places in his essays.

Error 60. *Few* years after, he came to Ispahan.

Error 61. Many of the books are priced at *few annas* each.

Error 62. The Haji resided more than *hundred* miles away.

The above are typical errors with *many, few* and *hundred*. They are here used as singular collective nouns, not as adjectives, hence they should be *a great many, a good many, a few* and *a hundred*.

Error 63. Mr. Dadabhai is *the honorary life member* of the club.

Error 64. The late Swami was *the resident* of a village in the Gujranwala district.

Error 65. In a country like India where journalism has not attained *the high level* as in England.

Error 66. Ruskin was destined by his parents for *the bishopric*.

In the above cases *the* has been wrongly used where *a* is required. This type of error is common, though it is difficult to see why it was made. Perhaps in Errors 63 to 65 the phrases *of the club, of a village* and *as in England* were felt to particularize the nouns *member, resident* and *level*.



which they qualify, and therefore *the* was put before the nouns. But they do not particularize them. There are always many honorary life members of a club, many residents of a village, and Mr. Dadabhai is *a life member*, the late Swami was *a resident*. Indian journalism has not attained *a high level as in England* (though it would be '*the high level which it has in England*', where the clause is a defining one). Ruskin's proposed future was *a bishopric* ('any bishopric'), not a particular or previously mentioned bishopric.

Error 67. The object of the Society is to stretch out *the helping hand* to the man who is down.

Here, again, *helping* does not sufficiently particularize *hand* to allow of *the* before them. It only describes a kind of hand, hence *a helping hand*. (On the other hand, we speak of *the hand of fellowship*, since *fellowship* does particularize *hand*.)

## B. BEFORE ADJECTIVES.

### (2) In stereotyped phrases :—

Error 68. In Sparta military discipline was pushed *to the extreme*.

The stereotyped phrase is *to an extreme*, having a plural *to extremes*, which is also very common.

## C. WITH ADJUNCTS.

### (3) After *such*, *quite* and *not* :—

Error 69. This man is *quite stranger* to us.

Perhaps this error arises from *quite* being used also, of course without *a*, as an adverb qualifying adjectives (e.g., *quite strange*). Followed by a singular noun, however, *quite* requires *a*, i.e. *quite a stranger*.

## D. BEFORE PRONOUNS.

Error 70. From one corner of India to *the other*.

This suggests that India has only two corners, but, in

this sense of the word, India has many corners, therefore *to another* is necessary.

Error 71. Punishment of one for the deed of *other*. Here, either two persons only are meant—and then *the one . . . the other* is necessary—or else more than two, in which case *one . . . another* is required.

## EXERCISES ON CHAPTER II

### DEFINITE ARTICLE

(1) Read again §41, and then correct the following:—

1. The temples stand in gardens outside town.
2. That their community wanted to extort Rs. 5,000 from the two gentlemen who had been to England is far from truth.

3. This is the main difference between the richer classes and masses.

4. You have admitted that Mahatma Gandhi is the incarnate soul of India and that masses have faith in him.

(2) Read again §42, and then correct the following:—

1. Of all things that mortal man bestows his thoughts on, the thought of love is one that affects him most.

2. A precarious hand-to-mouth existence is prejudicial alike to spiritual, moral and social development on which depends the stability of a nation.

3. To derive real pleasure from a society that a man is connected with, it is necessary to be charitable.

4. A special worker of Pindi Congress Committee was deputed to make enquiries.

5. The produce will hardly enable him to pay Government demand.

6. This was the opinion of no less a body than Bombay Medical Council.

7. Woman question was a main topic in Tennyson's times.

8. From this will arise the honour that will redound to British name.



9. The masses of Indian population are quite ignorant of European culture.
10. Mr. Morley, as Secretary of State for India, was a right man in right place.
11. We request the Committee to take necessary steps for providing relief.
12. The architectural beauty of this building has been described in foregoing lines.
13. Milton was a chief epic poet.
14. The reforms must be worked out in a manner least calculated to provoke angry feelings.
15. Your memorialists have heard with greatest joy of your willingness to attend to their petition.
16. We shall be ready to leave the bungalow early next morning.
17. He gave this advice once last year or year before last.

## INDEFINITE ARTICLE

(3) Read again §§52-61 and correct the following errors:—

1. Mere sentimental wish to go and do likewise cannot avail much.
2. We must work until country-made articles are reduced in price and brought on par with imported goods.
3. The municipalities having proved fairly successful, elective system was introduced into them.
4. He suffered for a right cause, for which parallel can be found only in the sufferings of Harishchandra, who suffered for the sake of truth.
5. Interviewed, he said that he never saw such horrible state of affairs.
6. The schoolmen had very few data, which were soon exhausted.
7. Tennyson had hatred for the mob.
8. His power of expression started as early as his third year by the sermon.
9. This incident contributed in a large measure to the liveliness of the proceedings.

10. Perhaps the authorities fear the state of things like that which occurred a century ago.

11. There has been a storm in the tea-cup at Cocanada.

12. There is plenty of material from which the middle classes in India might be created.

13. He tried to give lesson to the people on how to bring about these reforms.

14. Mr. D. had large practice, and we believe he will succeed in his high office.

15. There are increasing difficulties for a father in daughter's marriage.

16. The spread of education is gradually placing all the races of India on equal footing.

(4) Under what paragraphs of the chapter do errors in the following sentences come :—

1. She invited me to sit down, and offered me betels and smoke.

2. How great service your movement is doing to the world !

3. The proposed amendment does not affect the Parsis one way or the other.

## TEST PAPERS 2—(USES OF *THE* AND *A*)

### 2 A

(1) Name the four main uses of *the* before nouns. Give two sentences of your own to illustrate each of these main uses.

(2) Correct errors in the use of articles in the following sentences :—

1. These are grievances of which complaints are most frequently heard.

2. Tennyson advocates duty of living a pure life.

3. This is probably a thin end of the wedge.

4. People show much interest in Ahmadiya movement of Lahore.

5. The party will have to come to terms with united Indian nation very soon.



6. Swadeshi cry was good, but we must consider it from all points of view.

7. The majority of persons that constitute a nation are men of middle classes.

8. Thus great evil is wrought to society and to human race.

9. We understand that the celebration is to take place early next morning.

10. The arches are carried to a highest point which the horizontal cornices will allow.

11. Salt-tax has been further reduced.

12. Free quarters are provided for masters in neighbourhood of school.

13. I received three blows with a lathi and then another blow on my head and last blow on chest.

14. The affinities of Bihari language and Bengali indicate the mixed character of the population.

15. Architecture is one of the most difficult branches of fine arts.

16. It was hoped that Lord Elgin would remind the Cabinet that British Empire included India.

17. The measures adopted are in a direction of acknowledging the great value of raiyat.

## 2 B

(3) What is meant by a noun being a 'generic singular'? Under what four conditions must the Indefinite Article be placed before a generic singular?

(4) Insert the Indefinite Article where it is lacking in the following sentences:—

1. At the end of her lecture the speaker took pledge from the audience to use khaddar and Swadeshi in future.

2. He worked as a newspaper correspondent for about year and half.

3. Perfect spirit of non-violence ensures our success.

4. They have provided the Congress with proper constitution.

5. This community has demonstrated indifferent attitude on this question.

6. From his mother this author had perfect understanding of the nature of obedience.

7. The writer might have explained how the agitators worked to convert loyal into disloyal Punjab.

8. There was less than handful of delegates.

2 C

(5) Can you explain why *the* has been put for correct *a* in each of the following four sentences, and also why *a* would be correct:—

1. *The* deputation like the one proposed can do very useful work.

2. The building has *the* shape similar to the letter E.

3. This is not *the* change which is brought by mere chance.

4. Here Ruskin had *the* opportunity to have direct contact with Nature.

(6) Correct the following sentences, with regard to wrong omission of an article or use of the wrong article, and give a reason for each correction:—

1. Here introduction of coat of arms, is a happy idea.

2. A batch from Sind arrived to-day while some from Karnatak are soon expected.

3. All the members took keen interest in the discussion.

4. It was published in Peshawar Congress Bulletin that Haji of Turangzai intended to enter Peshawar.

5. Wounding of as many as 111 out of 165 Satyagrahis is very heavy list of casualties.

6. In 'In Memoriam' there are four cycles: Grief cycle, hope cycle, joy cycle, peace cycle.

7. There are good many Muslim gentlemen who can confirm this statement.

8. The authorities have posted extra number of policemen at Jhelum bridge.

9. Ruskin felt that any real feeling about the beauty was a feeling for a Divine, a touching of God, a bringing of God into men's minds.



## CHAPTER III

### ABSENCE OF *THE* AND *A*

#### GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS.

§63. The presence of *the* before a noun or its equivalent shows that the noun represents a definite or particular person or thing, and the presence of *a* denotes that the noun so qualified is countable though not unique or particular in meaning.

The absence, therefore, of either article suggests :—

(1) that the noun concerned no longer represents a definite or particular object or else that it names an uncountable object. Hence, because they name uncountable objects, all mass-words are normally used without *a* and often without *the*, and the same applies to names of meals and places, which have generally the character of mass-words;

(2) that the noun concerned already sufficiently represents an unique individual. Hence, proper names and names of family and household relationships usually require no article before them;

(3) that the noun approximates to the meaning and use of an adjective, which naturally renders it impossible to use an article before it.

The absence of the articles is usually treated in grammars without distinguishing whether it is *the* or *a* which is omitted, but, since errors show that writers often do not know which article is in question, the absence of *the* will be treated by itself first and then the absence of *a*.

*Absence of The*

## A. BEFORE NOUNS.

(1) *Proper Nouns.*

§64. (a) Besides names of people and places in the singular (*James, England*), combinations of a proper noun and a common noun making the name of a street or building take no *the* :—

*Harley Street. Piccadilly Square. Westminster Abbey.*

(Names of canals, however, usually take *the*, as the proper noun is felt to be acting as an adjective rather than making a compound with *canal* :—*the Suez Canal, the Panama Canal*. So likewise with combinations of proper and common noun which are occasional or less common :—*the Savoy Hotel, the South Kensington Museum, the Albert Hall, the Thames valley*.)

§65. (b) Combinations of adjective and proper noun denoting a person or place take no *the*, especially when the adjective has an emotional value :—

*Elizabethan England. Shock-headed Peter. Old Japan.*

§66. (c) A number of common nouns used as proper nouns for various reasons. These may be classified as follows :—

(i) nouns expressing relationships inside a household :—*father, mother, uncle, aunt, cook, nurse* in such uses as *Father* is in his study, *mother* is out shopping, and *nurse* has taken *baby* to the park.

(ii) names of some unique objects or names used with special reference to one institution :—*God, Heaven, Hell, Convocation, Parliament, Congress*.

(iii) names of an abstract meaning which are used with a personified sense :—*Fate, Chance, Fortune, Nature, Providence*.



(2) *Common Nouns.*

§67. (a) Common nouns used in a mass-sense take no *the* :—

*Brevity* is the soul of *wit*.

*Lead* is heavier than *iron*.

On January 10, 1840, *Penny Postage* began.

The same applies to collectives in a mass-sense :—

A small bag of *coin*.

A good deal of *muscle*.

So with names of diseases, which are mass-words even in the plural form :—

*Indigestion* is learnedly called *dyspepsia*.

The school broke up because of *measles*.

§68. (b) Plural thing-words used in a generalizing sense take no *the* :—

They fought like *dogs* and *cats*.

*Companies* of soldiers and *detachments* of police were stationed at strategic *points*.

(A special case of this use is in such expressions as :— the kindest of *men*; the warmest of *welcomes*; in his heart of *hearts*, in which the generalizing plural is in a prepositional adjunct to a superlative adjective or to a noun with a superlative meaning.)

§69. (c) The words *man*, *woman* in the collective or mass-sense take no *the* :—

The proper study of mankind is *man*.

*Woman's* share in agriculture has greatly increased of late years.

§70. (d) Many thing-words denoting places take no *the* when the use of the place is understood :—

*School* begins at nine. *Bed* is a pleasant place. He left *college* in 1930. He broke *prison*.

(*University*, however, always takes the article.)

This construction without *the* is regular with such words when they act as prepositional adjuncts:—

to go to *bed*; *school*, *church*, *market*, *town*, *Court*, *prison*; to be in *bed*, etc.: to be at *school*, etc.: to be presented at *Court*; to bring to *market*; to send by *post*.

Some other nouns also make prepositional adjuncts without *the*, from tradition and from the nouns being used in a very general sense:—

by *land*. by *sea*. on *land*. by *train*.

(Similarly, a noun which might take *his*, *her*, *one's* as qualifier may go without in a prepositional adjunct:—

There was one within *call*, within *sight* i.e. within *one's*, or *his*, or *her*, *call*, etc.)

§71. (e) Many nouns denoting time take no *the*, especially when qualified by *last* or *next* comparing that time with the present:—

*Term* begins on the 15th November.

The whole school has *break* in the morning from 11 to 11.15.

*Last* (or *next*) *summer holidays* we hoped (or hope) to go to Ireland.

§72. (f) Many nouns in phrases which act as prepositions take no *the*:—

in *face* of. beyond *reach* of. in *favour* of. in *case* of. under *pretext* of. in *honour* of.

(Sometimes, however, *in the face of* is found, and always *on the strength of*, *on the ground of*.)

§73. (g) Three kinds of combinations of verb and noun have no *the*:—

(i) some verb plus noun-object phrases:—to pay *court*, to break *faith*, to join *hands*, to keep *house*, to keep *word* (*faith*);



(ii) phrases of verb plus object plus *of* which make a single sense-unit:—*to take care of, to have record of, to make (or omit) mention of, to take toll of;*

(iii) some phrases of verb plus preposition plus noun:—*to take to heart, to be of opinion that.*

## B. BEFORE ADJECTIVES.

§74. (a) Positive adjectives take no *the* when they denote a language or a colour:—

*She is learning German. Green suits you.*

also in some fixed phrases of preposition and adjective:—

*for short. for good. of old.*

§75. (b) Superlative adjectives take no *the*, either when they act as pronouns:—

*He slept most of the time. from first to last. the week before last.*

or when they are used in the absolute sense, i.e., in the extreme sense and suggesting no comparison:—

*He died under most sad circumstances.*

*His answer was most sensible.*

## C. AFTER PRONOMINAL ADJUNCTS.

§76. *Both* requires no *the* after it when used as a pronominal adjective, though a personal pronominal adjective can be used in this position:—

*He held it in both (his) hands.*

*Both men came in.*

(Note, in this connection, that the expression *both the men* is an abbreviation of *both of the men*, in which *both* is a pronoun.)

## *Errors in Absence of The*

### A. BEFORE NOUNS.

#### (1) *Proper Nouns.*

##### (a) *Combination of Proper and Common Nouns.*

Error 72. In the heart of *the Haidarabad city*.

Error 73. The draper in *the Regent St.* or the banker in *the Lombard St.*

These are combinations of proper and common nouns naming well-known places, therefore should have no *the*:—*Haidarabad city, Regent St., Lombard St.*

Error 74. Yesterday the batch attempted to reach the Dharasana salt depot, but was driven with lathi blows to *the Dungri station*.

Here, *the* is correct before *Dharasana salt depot*, which is an occasional combination, but should be omitted before *Dungri station*, which is an established combination.

##### (b) *Adjectives plus Proper Nouns.*

Error 75. Yesterday I went to *the Back Bay*.

*Back Bay* is a well-known combination of adjective and noun for the name of an inlet of the sea at Bombay and requires no article.

##### (c) *Common Nouns as Proper.*

Error 76. India had a place in the King's speech in opening *the Parliament*.

*Parliament* with a capital P stands for the one at Westminster, hence no *the*. This error is due to *parliament* with a small p, which is not unique and may carry an article.

#### (2) *Common Nouns.*

##### (a) *Mass-words* such as:—

Error 77. This will supply *the information* which is very urgently needed.

Error 78. The ceremony is coming into *the vogue* even among the higher classes.



*Information* and *vogue* are here mass-words, therefore no article.

Error 79. This is one of the tasks which should be shared by both the State and *the society*.

Error 80. He believed rather in *the Religion* rooted in Science.

*Society* and *religion* may be used in either a mass- or a thing-sense. Here, evidently, the mass-sense is meant, therefore no article.

Error 81. No man could be more ignorant of *the human nature*.

Error 82. They admit that *the representative government* is the best policy.

*Nature* and *government* may also be used in either a mass- or a thing-sense, but *human nature* and *representative government* have definitely a mass-sense, therefore no article.

Error 83. In that age there was *a great progress* in science.

*Progress* has here a mass-sense. *A*, therefore, is as impossible as *the*.

(b) *Generalizing plurals.*

Error 84. In the government of a large dependency conscience and self-restraint are *the very essential elements*.

Error 85. The love of athletics has degenerated into a mad craze, and is affecting *all the classes*.

*Elements* and *classes* are here plurals of a generalizing nature, indicating no particular elements or classes, therefore, no article should be written.

Error 86. Figure decorations were best suited to *the Greek temples* and *the Indian caves*.

Here any or all *Greek temples* and *Indian caves* are meant, therefore no article. The writer is misled by the fact that the adjectives *Greek* and *Indian* would particularize a singular noun and then require *the*:—*the Greek temple* and *the Indian cave*, thus distinguishing these from other temples and caves.

Error 87. The volunteers were greeted with *the loud cries of 'Gandhiki Jai'*.

Error 88. They are, I think, *the statues* of the old Maratha warriors.

These errors are due to thinking that the *of*-adjuncts (of '*Gandhiki Jai*' and of *the old Maratha warriors*) particularize their headwords *cries* and *statues* and therefore require them to carry *the*. But only possessive *of*-adjuncts do this, and neither of the above is possessive: *of 'Gandhiki Jai'* is appositional, while *of the old Maratha warriors* means 'representing the old Maratha warriors'. *Cries* and *statues* are, therefore, general and require no *the*. Probably, also, *old Maratha warriors* should not have *the*.

(c) Error 89. The poet has expressed the view that, when *the man* is quite disgusted and gloomy, *the woman is the solace*.

No particular man or woman is meant, but *man* and *woman* in the collective or mass-sense, therefore no article.

(d) Error 90. He was thoroughly disillusioned about the utility of being outside *the prison*.

Again, no particular prison is meant but just a place whose use is understood, hence *outside prison*.

(e) Error 91. The great event of *the last week* was the debate on the Budget.

This is not meant to be the last of a series of weeks but *last week* compared with the present, therefore, no *the*.

(f) Error 92. Grains of barley were thrown *in the front of* the couple.

*In front of* is one of the preposition-equivalents requiring no *the*.

(g) Error 93. He took his misfortunes *to the heart*.

*To take to heart* is one of the verb plus preposition plus noun combinations requiring no *the* in front of the noun.

## B. BEFORE ADJECTIVES.

(b) Error 94. The average assessment on a holding is *the lightest* in Bijapur.



*Lightest* is here a superlative used absolutely, i.e. meaning 'at its lightest', and is also used as a predicative to *is*, therefore should be without article.

### C. AFTER PRONOMINAL ADJUNCTS.

Error 95. It is the same in *both the cases*.

This should be *in both cases*, since *both* is here used as an adjective and takes no article after it. (*Both the cases*, in which *both* is a full pronoun, is a construction standing for *both of the cases*.)

## Absence of A

### A. BEFORE NOUNS.

§77. *A* is absent:—

(1) As with *the*, regularly before mass-words, and this is the commonest condition by far for such absence:—

He uses bad *language*.

Jack found *employment* with a good firm.

He gave me *part* of his belongings.

§78. (2) Generally before nouns used predicatively, because in this position in the sentence they approximate to the meaning of adjectives. The following are the two commonest conditions:—

(a) as simple predicatives:—

Their number is *legion*.

He was *occupant* of the same house as Mr. X.

In her actions she was more *man* than *woman*.

He repeatedly proved himself *master*.

Such behaviour is bad *form*.

(When, however, a predicative noun is used with a definite substantival meaning, it must have an article:—

He was *a fool* to think he could accomplish it.)

(b) as predicatives at the head of a concessive clause introduced by *though* or *as*, or of a parenthetical exclamatory clause beginning with *that* :—

Strong *man* though he was, he could not long endure such a life.

Vain *fool* that he was !

§79. (3) \*Before a noun denoting rank, etc., which can refer to one person only :—

(a) before a predicative noun :—

The child is *father* of the man.

He was proclaimed *king*.

He was for many years *leader* of the Liberal Party.

(b) in appositions introduced by *as* or *for* :—

A committee with the Prime Minister as *chairman*.

Lucky man, to have so able a youth for *son* !

(c) in adjuncts to the objects :—

They hailed him *dictator* and *leader*.

(However, when the noun does not refer to one person, *a* must be used in all three cases :—When I was *a child*; he entered the army as *a lieutenant*; they created him an *earl* for his war services.)

§80. (4) After expressions like *the dignity of*, etc., when qualities of one person are contrasted :—

This book is a study of Shakespeare in the capacity of *lyric poet* as well as *dramatist*.

Generally, in fact, the noun carries no article in *of*-adjuncts after such words as *dignity*, *post*, *rank*, *title*, especially when the post, etc., can refer to one person only or does not suggest a number of persons :—

He attained the rank of *general*.

He was appointed to (or resigned) the post of *head-master*.



(But *a* is usual after *trade of* and similar nouns:—He followed the occupation of *a glazier*, played the part of *a clown*. Similarly, *a* is used after *career*, *position*.)

When preceded by *sort of*, *kind of*, etc., the noun often has no article because these phrases are felt as adjuncts to the noun, and any article or adjective qualifying the phrase is felt as qualifying the noun:—

You should not ask *that sort of question*.

The man is a kind of *fool*.

What manner of *man* is this?

This is another type of *house*.

## B. BEFORE ADJECTIVES.

§81. Since *a* is absent before a noun bearing an adjectival character it cannot, unlike *the*, be used before adjectives as such.

Note particularly that *a* is omitted:—

(1) Before *few*, *many* when these are used as half-pronominal adjectives. The same words are used also as singular collective nouns, and then take *a*, so that the distinction must be learnt between *few* and *a few*, *many* and *a many*. *A many* is now uncommon, except in dialect, and its developments *a great many*, *a good many*, etc., have been dealt with in §52. *Few*, the adjective, has a negative sense and means 'not many'; *a few*, the collective noun, has a positive sense and means 'a small number'. The distinction is shown in:—

*Few* men attain all, *a few* men attain most, of what they desire.

§82. (2) Obviously, after *this*, *that*. These are definite in meaning and could not, therefore, carry an indefinite article with them.

## Errors in the Absence of A

### A. BEFORE NOUNS.

#### (1) Before Mass-Words.

Error 96. Any government with a *foresight* will interfere before it is too late.

Error 97. If a *slang* may be permitted.

Error 98. There is a *vast scope* for improvement.

This is the principal source of error under this head, viz., that of not recognizing when a noun is a mass-word, i.e. uncountable, and therefore incapable of taking 'a' (meaning 'one') before it. *Foresight*, *slang* and *scope* are mass-words, therefore write *with foresight*, *if slang*, *there is vast scope*, etc.

Error 99. There should be a *separate bedding* for the child.

Error 100. I wish to get an *employment*.

Error 101. Perhaps he expected a *laughter* for his wit.

These are mistakes of the same kind but have a little more excuse, because they have been confused with the synonyms *bed*, *position* and *laugh*, which are thing-words and could carry a. But *bedding*, *employment* and *laughter* are mass-words, and a is impossible.

Error 102. He died leaving an *issue*.

Error 103. It is understood, on a *very reliable authority*, that . . . .

*Issue* and *authority* can be used in a thing-sense with a, but their meanings would then be 'result' and 'person of authority'. Here they are used in a mass-sense, meaning 'offspring' and 'information', therefore a is impossible. Write, instead, *leaving issue* and *on very reliable authority*.

#### (2) Before nouns used predicatively.

##### (a) as simple predicatives.

Error 104. The number of Hindu Bhaktas who have professed such views are a *legion*.



*Legion* is here used as a simple predicative to *is*, i.e. practically as an adjective, therefore no article—*is legion*.

(b) *as predicatives at the head of a concessive clause.*

Error 105. *A close student* of finance that Mr. Gokhale was, he could not ignore that . . .

*Close student* is predicative to *was* and stands at the head of a concessive clause. It is used practically as an adjective and cannot carry *a*.

(3) *Before nouns denoting rank.*

Error 106. The Anjuman-i-Islam acted as *a host* to the Conference.

*Acted as host* is correct, for *host* denotes rank and applies only to the Anjuman-i-Islam and is used in an apposition introduced by *as*.

(4) *After expressions like the dignity of, etc.*

Error 107. He denied that they had the right to play the part of *a dictator*.

Here *dictator* is best without an article, being dependent on the expression *part of* and referring to one person or group only, viz., *they*. *A* might possibly be used after *the part of*, but is very unsuitable as referring to a plural (*they*).

## B. BEFORE ADJECTIVES.

(1) *Few, many.*

Error 108. *A very few* stories ever disturbed her tranquillity of mind.

This means 'some stories disturbed', etc. What the writer means is 'not many stories', i.e. *Very few stories disturbed*, etc.

(2) *After this, that.*

Error 109. Who is *this another*?

Error 110. The present inferior position of *this once a glorious country*.

In these sentences *this* is used as an adjective (qualifying the pronoun *other* and the noun *country*) and cannot, as

a demonstrative adjective, be followed by *a* or *an*. Write *this other* and *this once glorious country*. Perhaps this extraordinary kind of error came from misunderstanding such constructions as *Is this a dog or a wolf?* where *a* does actually follow *this*, it is true, but *this* is, in this case, a pronoun, subject to *is* and not connected with *a*, which qualifies the predicative *dog* and *wolf*.

## EXERCISES ON CHAPTER III

### ABSENCE OF *The* AND *A*

Correct errors in the following sentences, according to the paragraphs named:—

§64. (a).

1. Reuter has plied the Fleet Street with the most sensational telegrams.
2. He was a graduate of the Cambridge University.
3. She contributes reviews to the 'India'.

§66. (ii).

Nowadays woman has the right to become member of the Parliament.

§67. (a).

1. The happiness is not so well enjoyed either by the rich or poor as by the middle class people.
2. Practical effort should be commended and brought to the public notice.
3. There may be a difference between what we feel to be right and what the society forces us to do.
4. To the several causes given, the inordinate memory training may perhaps be added to explain his success in life.
5. Ruskin says that the good art must be imperfect.

§68.

1. These are the causes usually assigned to a rise in the prices.



2. People of his times were much engaged in discussing the spiritual matters.

3. If we find a man in the company of the drunkards we judge him accordingly.

4. In Europe universities are not the examining boards but scientific institutes where professors and pupils co-operate.

5. This is an encouraging sign of the progress which the educated Indians are making.

§70.

I mean to return by the carriage.

§72.

I am of the opinion that religion is the highest study of man.

By the way of conclusion let me add these facts.

§75.

Last, though not the least, they persist in refusing him the honours due to him.

§76.

I noticed the beauty of the scenery on both the sides.

§77.

1. I hope to take a better notice of this individual's doings in coming months.

2. The extravagances call for an early attention.

3. Will his words fall on a barren soil?

4. This portly quarto displays a wide reading and much pains.

5. There is a talk of an additional judge being appointed.

6. He used so violent a language that he had to be put under control.

7. This is a happy news.

8. His parents take care of his making no acquaintance with a bad company.

9. He had a very delicate health.

10. After a hard thinking he decided what to do.

## §78. (a).

More than twelve gentlemen have enrolled as the members of the association.

## §78. (b).

1. An orthodox and devout Hindu woman as she was, she would never agree to this proposal for her son.

2. Mr. R., a worthy son of the old Mehtaji that he is, has followed his father's methods.

3. The average Englishman, a good Christian though he may be, cannot easily enter into these religious questions.

TEST PAPERS 3—(ABSENCE OF *THE* AND *A*)

## 3 A

(1) Explain what is wrong in the use of the Definite Article in the following sentences:—

1. The Bombay Municipal Office stands at the junction of the Hornby Road and the Cruickshank Road.

2. In that part of India the Good Friday and the Christmas Day are not observed.

3. The Cranford Society, according to Mrs. Gaskell, consisted of the ladies.

(2) When can you recognize that a common noun is used as a Mass-Word, and what is the rule with regard to the use of either article before Mass-Words? Correct, according to this rule, any errors in the use of articles in the following sentences:—

1. He had no message to give to the posterity.

2. He made a rapid progress in the study of the Latin grammar.

3. The speaker gave a good advice; she urged the necessity of making the female education more definite.

4. Those who seek a Government employment should do so after a mature deliberation.

5. A rich man in a bad company may consider it a great luck to escape trouble.



6. Paintings ought to be faithful to the reality.

7. Education has made a decided headway in Bombay, as is shown by this noble institution for the training of the youth.

8. He spent a year on the English soil and suffered the excommunication from his caste which a foreign travel entails.

### 3 B

(3) What is a 'generalizing plural'? Correct any misuse of articles before plurals in the following sentences :—

1. These are causes that check the reform movement of the modern times.

2. There are many instances of the vicious persons being improved.

3. The Museum contains many clay figures of the peculiar types of castes.

4. Many who were not the members of the Reform Association joined it.

(4) Explain why *the* is not required in the cases italicized in these sentences :—

1. And so, in *the* face of these facts, how can the public believe this report?

2. There has been no epidemic of influenza since the year before *the* last.

## CHAPTER IV

## ADJECTIVES

§83. Not much difficulty is experienced by Indian students with the use of adjectives. Nevertheless, mistakes are made frequently enough with the predicative use of adjectives, with *some* and *any* and certain other quantitative adjectives and with the use of *his*, *her* and other pronominal possessives to make a short chapter on adjectives necessary.

## CLASSIFICATION.

§84. Clear thinking about adjectives is not possible without an idea of how they are grouped. Such knowledge leads also to correct use. Adjectives are divided into classes according to either their meaning or their origin. First, according to meaning, there are the two main classes of Qualitative and Quantitative adjectives. In *a powerful motor*, *powerful* specifies a quality of *motor*; in *ten horses*, *ten* specifies a quantity of *horses*. Second, according to origin, *your* is connected with the pronoun *you* and represents a third main class of Pronominal adjectives.

Each of these classes is further sub-divided for clearness.

§85. The first class, Qualitative, contains not only pure adjectives (such as *powerful*, *true*, *red*) but also the present and past participles of verbs regularly used as adjectives (such as *fascinating*, *decayed*), and adjectives made from proper nouns (such as *Victorian*, *Indian*). These, however, are not real sub-classes, but are taken with the pure adjectives.

§86. The second class, Quantitative, falls first into two sub-classes according as they express Mass and



are used with mass-words (e.g.: *any light, some water, much bread, little food*) or express Number and are used with thing-words (*some, many loaves*), though some of them can be used with either (*some books, any candles*) while some cannot (e.g.: *much, little*). Further, those expressing Number can express either a definite number (*one, no, first, both*) or an indefinite number (*some, any, an, all, most*) or are distributive in meaning (*each way, either road, every man*).

§87. The third class, Pronominal, falls into five sub-classes according to origin, i.e., according as they come from demonstrative pronouns (*the, this*), or interrogative (*which direction are we going? what purpose has he?*), or relative (*which, what, whose*, e.g.: *schemes, whose success is uncertain*), or possessive (*my hat, your, mine*); or according to use in an emphatic position (*myself, himself* e.g.: *I went myself to see him*).

§88. Arranged in formal order, the classification would appear thus:—

- |  |   |   |   |  |   |
|--|---|---|---|--|---|
| I. Qualitative   | { | 1. Adjectival:— <i>large, red, true, powerful, etc.</i>   |   |  |   |
|  |   | 2. Participial:— <i>fascinating, divided, rotten, swollen, unheard of.</i>  |   |  |   |
|  |   | 3. From Proper nouns:— <i>Indian, Victorian, Philippine.</i>  |   |  |   |
| II. Quantitative   | { | 1. Mass:— <i>much, little, some, any, no.</i>   |   |  |   |
|  |   | 2. Number { <table border="0"> <tr> <td>(a) Definite:—<i>one, first, no, another, both, twofold.</i></td> </tr> <tr> <td>(b) Indefinite:—<i>an, all, any, certain, many, most, several, some, whole.</i></td> </tr> <tr> <td>(c) Distributive:—<i>several, either, neither, each, every, other.</i></td> </tr> </table> | (a) Definite:— <i>one, first, no, another, both, twofold.</i> | (b) Indefinite:— <i>an, all, any, certain, many, most, several, some, whole.</i> | (c) Distributive:— <i>several, either, neither, each, every, other.</i> |
|  |   | (a) Definite:— <i>one, first, no, another, both, twofold.</i>   |   |  |   |
| (b) Indefinite:— <i>an, all, any, certain, many, most, several, some, whole.</i> |   |   |   |  |   |
| (c) Distributive:— <i>several, either, neither, each, every, other.</i>          |   |   |   |  |   |
|  |   |   |   |  |   |

## III. Pronominal

1. Demonstrative :—*the, this, that, you, yonder.*
2. Interrogative :—*which? what? whose?*
3. Relative :—*which, what, whose, whichever, whatever, whatsoever.*
4. Possessive :—*my, your, his, her, its, our, their, mine, yours, etc.*
5. Emphatic :—*myself, yourself, himself, own, etc.*

§89. It is noticeable that several adjectives are to be found in more than one sub-class, e.g., *some, any, no, several*. This is due to these adjectives having more than one use, and careful distinction must be made between the various uses of such. Then, with regard to *some* and *any* in particular, care must be taken with difference of meaning.

## MEANING.

§90. It should be evident at once that, because of their meaning, some qualitative adjectives can be applied only to persons, not to things, unless metaphorically or when applied to actions of a person. Thus, *kindly, generous, happy* apply to persons; they can be applied to actions or circumstances connected with persons, but, in this case, care must be taken with the construction of the sentence to see that the adjective has a personal application. Thus :—

'It was *generous* of him to *give so much* when he has so little.'

is correct, because what is described as *generous* is the act to *give so much*, which is personal. But :—

'It is *happy* to know that one's efforts are appreciated.'

is wrong, because what is described as *happy* is to know, and knowledge is not a personal quality which



can be happy. Here one can either use another adjective which can describe knowledge or else make *happy* into a neuter noun-substitute to suit the neuter thing to know :—

It is *pleasant* to know that one's efforts are appreciated.  
or

It is a *happy thing* to know that one's efforts are appreciated.

*Some* and *any* both express a quantity, but they are distinct in meaning in that *some* suggests a definite quantity and goes with positive statements, while *any* suggests an indefinite quantity and goes with negative statements and with questions :—

Have you *any* paper of a dark blue colour left?

No, I haven't *any*, but I believe Krishna has *some*.

#### USES.

§91. Adjectives can be used either along with their noun :—

Do you see *yonder red* house?

or with a verb of incomplete predication, e.g. :—  
*to be, become, seem, turn, etc.* :—

The leaves turn *red* in the autumn.

The former is called the Attributive, the latter the Predicative use.

Like *red* above, most adjectives can be used both attributively and predicatively.

§92. Some adjectives, however, can be used either only attributively or only predicatively.

Chief among those which can be used only attributively are such as denote materials (a *wooden* fence, a *leathern* bottle) or express relations of time and space (*right* and *left* feet, *inner* and *outer* skins), and also *elder* (*elder* brother.)

Adjectives which can be used only predicatively are mainly words that are really adverbs, such as those beginning with *a-* (they found him *asleep*; the liner was still *afloat*); also some isolated ones, such as *well, ill, afraid, fast* (when applied to a timepiece, e.g., your watch is *fast*), *alone, aware, content, exempt, wont*, etc.: finally, the possessives in *es* and *-ne* (this book is *mine*, not *yours*).

### SPECIAL USES OF PRONOMINAL POSSESSIVES.

§93. *My, yours, etc.*, have some peculiar uses which need detailing:—

(a) They act like genitives of nouns:—

The school has changed *its* (i.e. the school's) name.

This genitive is generally subjective:—

Did you hear *his* speech (i.e. the speech *he* made).  
but can be used objectively when the meaning is clear:—

Have you heard of *his* dismissal (i.e. that they have dismissed *him*).

(b) However, the *of*-equivalent is often used instead of the objective genitive:—

I live within easy reach *of him*, but I can't bear the sight *of him*.

and this construction is necessary whenever a second noun-object is coupled with the pronoun:—

\*Enemies have been the ruin *of him and all his hopes*.  
and is the regular thing after simple indefinite pronouns (*all, some, any, both*):—

I should like *some of them*, if not *all of them*.  
though, with *all* and *both*, another construction with the personal pronoun is possible:—

They have invited *us both* (or *us all*).



(c) If two or more pronominal possessives are used with a noun, usually the first one precedes, the rest follow :—

Will you bring *his* books and *mine*.

(d) The forms *mine*, *yours*, etc., sometimes called Independent Possessives, regularly act as post-possessives in the same way as nouns, especially when the preceding noun is qualified by a demonstrative adjective (*this*, *that*) :—

I like this photograph *of yours*.

(e) Finally, when the person for whom the pronominal possessive stands can easily be guessed from the context, *the* is often used instead of the possessive. This is very frequent before parts of the body :—

He's got a bad cold in *the* head (i.e. *his* head).

#### COMPARISON AND CONVERSION.

§94. The comparison of adjectives is treated separately in Chapter xii, and so also is the use of adjectives as nouns, etc., called Conversion (e.g., *the poor and needy*).

#### THE AND A.

§95. *The*, which is a pronominal demonstrative adjective, and *a*, which is a quantitative indefinite adjective, have so many important special uses that they have separate treatment in Chapters ii and iii.

#### *Errors with Adjectives*

##### *Meaning*

Under this head the main difficulties are with the personal or impersonal applications of adjectives and with *some* and *any*.

Error III. It is *happy* to note that an agreement has been reached on this point.

What is described here as *happy* is to note—a personal adjective applied to a rather impersonal action. Either use a less personal adjective or else make *happy* neuter by adding *thing*:—

It is *pleasant* to note . . . .

It is a *happy thing* to note . . . .

SOME, ANY.

Error 112. There was no case of *some* importance in which Mr. B. had not to appear.

Error 113. Schools should be established in every town of *some* importance.

Error 114. These consideration may have *any* value in the case of executive officers.

These are typical errors in the use of *some* and *any* as quantitative adjectives. In the first case, *some* should be *any* because the sentence is negative (*no* case) and indefinite. In the second, *some* should again be *any* in a positive sentence because the utmost indefiniteness is to be suggested. In the third, *any* should be *some* because the sentence is a positive statement of a definite quantity.

Error 115. Unhappily they are not nurtured according to *some* sound method.

Error 116. It is foolish to accuse the dead of *some* crimes.

Error 117. I hope to get *any* opportunity of returning his kindness.

Here, again, are similar errors with *some* and *any* used as indefinite adjectives before thing-words. In the first case, *some* should be *any* in a negative sentence (*not* nurtured). In the second, *some* should be *any* in a positive sentence because the more general and vague word is required. In the third, *any* should be *some* because the more particular and definite meaning is needed.

Error 118. We should spend our money on *some* things that are useful.

Error 119. The events of the past *some* weeks . . .



Error 120. The prosecution of the criminals has dragged on these weeks and ended in the conviction of the accused.

Above are three typical errors with plural thing-words which need either general or particular definition. In the first sentence, the *things* are evidently so general that no adjective (not even *any*) is needed (*on things that are useful*). In the second, the *weeks* need an adjective of more particular meaning than *some* (say *several* or *few weeks*), and so, again, does *weeks* in the third sentence need particularization (*several* or *many weeks*).

### Quantitative Adjectives

#### 1. MASS.

Apart from *some* and *any*, treated above, the adjective *much* gives trouble under this head.

First, such adjectives as *much*, which are applicable only to mass-words (singulars) cannot be used with thing-words in the plural. So, in:—

Error 121. *Much* more training facilities are required. *much* cannot go with *facilities*, but must be replaced by *many*.

Then, even with mass-words, *much* may be misused, e.g.:—

Error 122. He borrowed as *much* money as to pay his passage home.

which is a muddle of two constructions, one with the adjective *much* (*as much money as would pay*) and one with the pronoun *much* (e.g.: *that is as much as to say*). Correct either with the first sentence in brackets or by substituting *enough*:—

He borrowed *as much money as would pay* . . . .

He borrowed *enough money to pay* . . .

Finally, *much* will not go with qualitative adjectives nor with nouns expressing anything else than mass:—

Error 123. This is as *much necessary* as the other.

Error 124. The thicker the layer of ignorance, the *more* the necessity of this quickening influence.

In the above, *necessary* is an adjective of quality and will not take *much*; in fact, it requires no qualifier at all (*this is as necessary as the other*). Likewise, in the second error, *necessity* expresses a state and requires an adjective of degree (*the greater the necessity*), not *more*, which is the comparative of *much*.

## 2. NUMBER.

### (a) *Definite*.

(i) *Both* and *two* apply equally to duality, but are distinguished by *both* applying to two objects taken together and *two* only, while *two* applies to two objects separate and taken out of an actual or possible larger number. So, in:—

Error 125. Since *both* these events much water has flowed under the bridge.  
there are two separate events under consideration, and the correct expression would be *Since these two events*, etc.

Error 126. The skilled artisan can hardly make *two* ends meet.  
needs *both ends*, for income and expenditure are the only two ends in question.

(ii) When *all* of anything is (or are) to be excluded, then *no* is the correct word, so that instead of:—

Error 127. All other kinds of poetry are *not* noticed by this writer.  
it is necessary to write:—*No* other kinds . . . are noticed, etc.

*One* is unnecessary when there is no doubt of the unity of the thing mentioned. So, in:—

Error 128. For the last *one* century.  
*one* must be omitted.

### (b) *Distributive*.

Under this head there is only to be noted the curious habit, which Indian students have, of always writing *each* and *every* when *every* alone would suffice, e.g.:—

Error 129. *Each* and *every* time that I saw him he was wearing a different hat.



*Each and every* is used only for emphasis, and is therefore infrequent and reserved for special occasions. For ordinary purposes, such as the above, *every* alone is quite good enough.

### *Pronominal Possessive Adjectives*

Indian students sometimes find great difficulty with these in deciding (a) when the possessive adjective must be omitted before a noun; (b) when it must be inserted; (c) when *the* must be substituted for it; (d) when *the* is insufficient and the possessive must be put in.

Broadly, one can say, to cover all these cases, that

(a) both possessive and *the* are omitted in certain fixed prepositional phrases and before generalizing plurals of common nouns;

(b) the possessive must be inserted when there is a definite reference back or forward to the subject of the sentence;

(c) *the* replaces the possessive before names of parts of the body;

(d) the possessive must replace *the* when possession must be clear and emphasized.

(a) Thus, in:—

Error 130. The best interests of the schoolboys were always *at his heart*.

we have a fixed prepositional phrase *at heart*, and *his* should be omitted. The full phrase is, however, *to have at heart*, and the sentence must be re-modelled:—*He had the best interests of the schoolboys always at heart.*

Again, in:—

Error 131. The movement has not been barren of *its results*.

*results* is a generalizing plural of a common noun, therefore omit *its*.

(b) Error 132. He impressed upon the Muslims the necessity of regarding India as *motherland*. requires *their* before *motherland*, because there is a reference back to the subject *Muslims*, to whom India is *their motherland*.

- (c) Error 133. Troilus is brought down from his clouds.

Here is no reference back to the subject *Troilus*, nor do the clouds belong to him, therefore, *from the clouds*.

- Error 134. They must grow to *their* full stature of their manhood.

Here the reference back to the subject (*they*) is correct in *their* manhood, but *stature* is an abstract referring to *manhood*, not to *they*, hence *the stature of their manhood*.

- (d) Error 135. This body recommended, as the readers are aware, an outlay of Rs. 15 lakhs. must have *our* for *the*, because the readers are those of the paper speaking.

Error 136. The scripture declares at the top of the voice that it is not possible. must have *its* for *the*, since *voice* refers back to *scripture*, to which it belongs.

Finally, there are some expressions with the possessive which are not properly understood. E.g., in :—

- Error 137. The young lady has lost *the peace of her mind*. the true phrase is *peace of mind*, hence *her peace of mind*.

## EXERCISES ON CHAPTER IV

### ADJECTIVES

Correct any errors, either of form or use, in adjectives of the following kinds in these sentences :—

#### (A) Qualitative.

1. Japan stands out before an amazing world, the wonder of wonders.
2. We have had some very oppressing heat lately.
3. The great Reform Bill past in 1832.

#### (B) Quantitative.

1. There were 316 students in the college, and out of this number as much as 120 lived in the hostel attached to the college.



2. Everyone with some pretension to learning will understand this book.

3. The method of organization differs widely in both countries.

4. During the past one year fifteen banks have been established.

5. We hope that a well-equipped school or any institution may arise.

6. This is a better government than the country has had for these some centuries.

(C) *Pronominal Possessive.*

1. Talatis who have not as yet resigned should immediately give in resignations.

2. The primitive man, the cave dweller, endeavoured to provide for physical wants.

3. All these things have found their entrance into Tennyson's poems.

4. Let them pack up their bag and baggage and quietly withdraw.

5. There is one specialist to whom even Principal S. must extend his hand of fellowship.

6. Mr. Morley had to countenance a policy which went against his grain.

7. This makes it difficult for us to trace the present trouble to the source.

8. We printed in the last issue an article on this subject.

9. This cannot but result in the creation of a class of men who will exhibit courage of conviction, earnestness of purpose and faithfulness to duty.

TEST PAPERS 4—(ADJECTIVES)

4 A

(1) Explain briefly the meaning and use of *some* and *any* as adjectives. Correct any errors in the use of these words in the following sentences:—

1. Friends must make a point of meeting frequently. Unless they do any such thing they will soon forget each other.

2. I saw some jugglers performing some tricks before some spectators.

3. Ordinary history text-books treat some particular part of the world, without explaining its bearing upon some general movement of civilization.

(2) What is wrong with the use of the indefinite quantitative adjectives in the following sentences:—

1. The labourer is daily gaining *more and more* of leisure.

2. *Whole* India is now directly interested in its future.

3. It is gratifying to note the very *few* number of loans made for marriage purposes.

#### 4 B

(3) When must a pronominal possessive adjective be used before a noun, and when not? Illustrate your answer by correcting any errors in the following sentences:—

1. My countrymen have adopted the beautiful song of Bande Mataram as national anthem.

2. Comrade and I were fortunate enough to find ourselves at Carnac.

3. These associations are having their meetings on Friday with a view to arranging a union between them.

4. He was a father within teens.

5. The whole community is therefore requested to join its hands in the movement.

6. The four officers who erred in their judgment should be punished.

(4) Under what condition is *the* used instead of a pronominal possessive adjective? Correct any mistakes in the following sentences:—

1. The two communities have been set by their ears.

2. If we set a bad example to our succeeding generation, history will judge us.



## CHAPTER V

## PRONOUNS

§96. The principal difficulty experienced with pronouns is with the personal pronouns used as reflexives and with the possessive pronouns as objective genitives. Minor trouble is caused by some of the relative, demonstrative and indefinite pronouns; the uses of the possessive and interrogative pronouns, however, seem to be understood.

It is well, first, to lay out the pronouns in a scheme of classification for the sake of clarity in thinking, and then to proceed with those pronouns and their uses which are found difficult.

*Classification*

§97. Pronouns may be arranged in classes as follows:—

- |                           |   |   |
|---------------------------|---|---|
| I. <i>Personal</i>        | { | 1. Simple:— <i>I, me; we, us; you; he, him, she, her, it; they, them.</i><br>2. Compound:— <i>Myself, your-, him-, her-, itself; our-, your-, themselves.</i> |
| II. <i>Possessive</i>     | { | 1. Independent:— <i>Mine, his, hers, ours, yours, theirs.</i><br>2. Emphatic:— <i>My own; his, her, our, your, their own.</i>                                 |
| III. <i>Interrogative</i> | { | 1. Simple:— <i>Who? whom? whose? which? what?</i><br>2. Compound:— <i>Whoever? whom-, whose-, which-, whatever?</i>   |

## IV. Relative

1. Simple:—*Who, whom, whose; which, what.*
2. Compound:—*Whoever, whom-, whose-, which-, whatever.*

V. Demonstrative:—*This, these; that, those; (such).*

## VI. Indefinite

1. Simple:—*All, any, both, certain, each, either, neither, one, other, same, several, some, thing.*
2. Any-, every-, no-, some-, body, one, thing; each one, none.

## Uses

## 1. PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

## (1) Simple.

§98. The most important uses with personal pronouns are those with *it*. This neuter pronoun can refer either backward (anaphorically) or forward (anticipatorily) to other words or a clause, and it can also act as the formal subject of a sentence, that is, stand in the place of the subject in order that some word following the verb may be emphasized. The following are examples of these uses:—

(a) Anaphorical *it* often refers back to a preceding sentence:—

They've sent him away. I thought they would do it  
(i.e. send him away).

and is found, referring to something in the speaker's mind, in many colloquial phrases (I've had *it* out with him. You can't have *it* all your own way. Now you're in for *it*. You'd better make a clean breast of *it*.)



(b) Anticipatory *it* refers forward to a subject which is a verbal noun or a clause :—

*It was nice to hear from him again* (verbal noun *to hear*).

*It's doubtful whether he'll be there* (clause).

and must be put in between a verb plus preposition and its clause-object :—

You can *rely upon it that I will do my best*.

in which *it* is placed between the verb plus preposition *rely upon* and its clause-object *that I will do my best*.

(c) Formal *it* has a special function of its own, viz., to introduce any part of a sentence with *it is, it was* in order to emphasize that part :—

*It is seldom* that he comes to see us.

in which formal *it* acts as subject of the sentence in order to emphasize *seldom*.

## (2) Compound.

§99. Note, with regard to these, that the 1st and 2nd persons (*myself, yourself, ourselves, yourselves*) are made with the genitive of the pronoun, the third person being made with the objective form (*himself, herself, itself, themselves*).

§100. These compound personal pronouns are used either

(a) as reflexive pronouns, emphatic or non-emphatic; or

(b) as non-reflexive pronouns, only emphatically.

(a) When used as reflexives, they must refer back to the subject of the sentence, whether they are used :—

(i) as a predicative :—A man must be *himself*, not a copy of someone else.

- (ii) as a direct object:—Go and wash *yourself*!
- (iii) as an indirect object:—She has brought *herself* some beautiful saris.
- (iv) in a prepositional adjunct:—You must do this *by yourself*.

(b) When used as non-reflexive pronouns, they are just strengthened forms of the simple personal pronouns and do not necessarily refer back to the subject. The non-reflexive uses are two:—

- (i) to form a subject along with a noun or another pronoun or after *as*, *like* and *than*:—

*His brother and himself* ran the business.

*No other than yourself* can fill the position.

- (ii) to form a predicative or an object or a prepositional adjunct:—

The hero of Byron's longer poems is *himself* (predicative).

Qualities we dislike in others often disfigure *ourselves* (object).

His novel is *about himself* (prep. adjunct).

### *Errors with Personal Pronouns*

#### *Compound.*

Error 138. His sprightly madness cheats its self.

Here is an error in the form (*itself*) of the 3rd person, due to false analogy with the 1st and 2nd persons (*myself*, *yourself*, etc.).

Error 139. We wanted something to cover *us* with.

Error 140. We must therefore find means by which we can secure for *us* the greatest good.

In both of the above, *us* refers back to a subject *we* and, being reflexive, should be *ourselves*.

Error 141. It may be said that executive officials have little freedom of action left to *themselves*.

This is the opposite kind of error to the last. The writer thinks that *themselves* should be reflexive as referring back



to *executive officials*. But, while it does refer to *officials*, it does not refer to the subject *freedom of action* of its own verb *left*. It should, therefore, be the simple pronoun *them*.

## II. POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.

§101. These pronominal possessives (*my*, *his*, *her*, etc.) are regularly used as adjectives, and this use of them has been discussed in chapter IV.

There is, however, one use out of these which must be specially dealt with here, and that is the use of them as objective genitives. In §93 (a), we have said that these possessives are regularly used as subjective genitives, and this is because there is no doubt that the pronoun in the possessive would be the subject of a verb in a parallel construction, e.g.:—*his* speech means '*he* made a speech'.

But, when these possessives are used as objective genitives, the greatest care has to be taken that they clearly act as objects of a verb in the parallel construction. In §93 (b), *his dismissal* by itself means clearly '*they* have dismissed *him*', but the same phrase becomes a subjective genitive by adding an object with *of*, e.g.:—*his dismissal of all his servants* means '*he* has dismissed all his servants'.

These objective genitives are dangerous tools to handle. That even supposed good writers may use them clumsily is shown by the following sentence from the *Times Literary Supplement*:—

Even if Mrs. Woolf had not referred to 'the heavenly pastures of biography' there could be no doubt of *her* attraction to this personal side.

The *her* is meant to be an objective genitive (*biography attracts her*), but, at the first glance, looks

as though it should be subjective (*she attracts biography*). As the errors below show, other writers often commit the blunder of making what they mean to be an objective genitive look like a subjective one. The golden rule is to use the possessive only as a subjective genitive, and for the objective sense to use the *of*-equivalent whenever there is the slightest doubt about the possessive form being the object.

Another common error is to use these possessives as objective genitives with headwords which carry some other preposition than *of*. For instance, in:—

The jeweller has made a necklace and a pendant for *its* attachment.

the headword *attachment* does not take *of*, but *to*, and the wrong *its attachment* should have been *attachment to it*.

### *Errors with Possessive Pronouns*

Error 142. He tells the ancient history of various places and gives us *their* description.

Here is a typical mistake with the objective genitive. *Their* looks like a subjective genitive, as if 'they' ('places') have a description, which is absurd. If *their* is to be the object of *description*, use the *of*-equivalent:—and gives us a description *of them*.

Error 143. They may visit Indian clubs and become *their* members.

*Their* is wrong here because a partitive, not a possessive, genitive is required after *members*. Hence, one must write *members of them*.

Error 144. He started a widows' home and a girls' home in *its* connection.

This is the third type of error with possessives. *Connection*, the headword, does not take *of* but *with*, and the correction made must be *in connection with it*.



## III. RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

(1) *Simple.*

§102. Of the simple relatives *who* and *which* it is generally known that *who* refers to persons while *which* refers to animals and things.

There are two conditions, however, under which *which* must be used when referring to persons. These are :—

(a) when the relative is used as a predicative adjunct to an object :—

He was not the clever fellow *which* I thought *him*.  
where *which* refers to the object *him* which is predicative to *thought*.

(b) when the relative refers to a collective noun taken as a singular :—

The committee, *which* was appointed last year, has been re-elected.

The objective *whom* and the possessive *whose* belong to *who*, not to *which*, and must be made to refer to persons only.

*Errors with Relative Pronouns*

Error 145. This is a line of action, *whose* wisdom is yet to be proved.

This is a specimen of the frequent mistake of making *whose* refer to an inanimate antecedent (*line of action*). Of course, *wisdom of which* is the correct rendering.

Error 146. The universities do not give that amount of recognition to industrial *as* they do to cultural education.

It is also a common error with Indian students to make *as* act as a relative pronoun, especially when referring to

antecedents qualified by *that* (*that amount of recognition*). The proper relative is, of course, *which*.

Error 147. This was the principle *how* the Aristotelians concluded a thing.

*How* cannot be used as a relative, here referring to *principle*. *How* is an adverb, and the difficulty the student felt was that he wanted an adverbial connective and didn't know what to use. The proper method was to use the preposition (*on*) proper to the antecedent (*principle*) and the correct relative pronoun :—*on which*.

#### IV. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

§103. The three general uses of *this* (*these*) and *that* (*those*) are generally understood, viz. :—

(a) to point out an object, generally a thing :—

*This* is the quicker way, not *that*.

but also a person, if the purpose is to identify him or give information about him :—

*That* is the man I meant, the one over there.

*That* is the sort of man I like.

(b) to act as antecedents :—

*Those* who arrive after roll-call are late.

(c) to refer either forward (anticipatorily) or back (anaphorically) :—

*This* I do believe, that you have every chance of succeeding.

He says we can both go, and *that* is considerate of him.

in which *this* refers forward to the clause *that... succeeding* while *that* refers back to the clause *we can both go*.

There is, however, a special anaphoric use of *that*



(not *this*) which is not so generally understood. It is illustrated in the following sentences:—

There is a great difference between the present India and *that* of ten years ago.

This house is not so good as *that* we last looked at.

In the former sentence, *that* refers back to *India* and is itself qualified by a *prepositional adjunct* (*of ten years ago*), while, in the latter, *that* refers back to *house* and is itself qualified by a clause (*we last looked at*). That is, when a prepositional adjunct or a clause is to act as an adjective and has no word which it can qualify in the sentence, then *that* must be supplied for it to qualify.

#### *Errors with Demonstrative Pronouns*

These are all connected with the special anaphorical use of *that* which has last been explained.

Error 148. The fault will be theirs and not of the people of India.

Error 149. The causes of the ferment are other than the executive have fastened upon.

In the former error the prepositional adjunct *of the people of India* and, in the latter, the clause *the executive have fastened upon* both need *that* as their headword (*and not that of the people of India; other than that the executive, etc.*).

#### V. INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

##### (1) *Simple.*

§104. Nearly all of these are used as both pronouns and adjectives (see chapter IV for their use as adjectives). They are called indefinite because they may refer to any person or thing one chooses, but, as regards number of persons or things, some of these pronouns are definite, some indefinite in meaning.

Only those which cause difficulty or have very important uses are here detailed. They are:—  
*Any*. Used when expecting a negative response or in a negative sentence, and refers to either persons or things:—

Have you met *any* of his people? (Expected response: No.)

I have *not* read *any* of his books.

*Some*. Refers, in contrast with *any*, to what is believed or assumed to exist or be true and expects a positive response, even to a question in the negative:—

Weren't there *some* left of those peaches? (Expected response: Yes, there were.)

Contrast this with:—

Weren't there *any* left of those peaches? (Expected response: No, there weren't.)

*Either*, *Neither* speak of two only and refer to one or the other and the negative of this:—

Both of his sons are sitting for matriculation; *either* may succeed or *neither*.

*One* has many valuable uses, especially the use as a prop-word to help an adjective to represent a noun.

It may refer to persons or things as a numeral:—

*One* (or *anyone*) should think before acting.

*One* hopes (or *I* hope) he will know better next time.

Anaphorically, *one* may refer to a preceding common noun:—

These are delicious mangoes; will you have *one* (i.e. a mango).

or to something in the speaker's mind:—

I'll give him *one* (i.e. a blow) if he doesn't come back quick.



Most important of all, *one* can act as a prop-word to an adjective, to help it to act as a noun :—

Are you sure this train is the *right one*?

*Thing*, though a noun, has sometimes so indefinite a meaning as to become a mere reference-word or pronoun :—

*Things* were not the same in my friend's house as ten years ago.

which means that alterations of circumstances, fortune or happiness, had occurred in the interval.

*Thing* is also used, like *one*, as a prop-word with adjectives; then, unlike *one*, it does not refer to a noun but makes a neuter noun out of the adjective :—

The *best thing* you can do is to be reconciled with him.

## (2) Compound.

§105. *None*, the opposite of *all*, excludes everyone or everything. It usually refers to persons and is plural in meaning :—

*None* of you *were* at the meeting, I think?

but, especially in literary English, it is sometimes singular :—

*None* but the brave *deserves* the fair (Dryden).

*None* refers also to things, and is then either singular or plural :—

His speech had *none* (sing.) of a politician's cunning and also *none* (plur.) of his fine phrases.

## *Errors with Indefinite Pronouns*

### (1) Simple.

Error 150. He tried to win over to his side *any* of the other two.

The proper indefinite referring to one of two is *either*, if positive, *neither*, if negative. Here write *either* (or possibly *one*).

(2) *Compound*.

Error 151. He is disinclined to give them *something*. This is the usual error with *some—any*. Since *disinclined* is negative in meaning, *anything* is necessary with it.

## EXERCISES ON CHAPTER V

### PRONOUNS

Correct any errors in the form or use of pronouns in the following sentences, after study of the paragraphs named. (Study also the corrected errors under these paragraphs.)

#### I. PERSONAL.

##### § 100.

1. How many of us have asked us questions how seed is produced and why it is produced?
2. The bold course has more to commend itself than a milk-and-water scheme.

#### II. POSSESSIVE.

##### § 101.

1. There is little unity and brotherly love among nations, which to-day stand in its dire need.
2. An address was drawn up, and hundreds of its copies were distributed to its well-wishers.
3. Medical charities are for the poor, but it appears that the most impoverished never get their benefit.
4. Their consideration will lead us to observe many differences between them.
5. Want of education, in some parts of India, makes their comparison with other parts unfavourable.
6. Whatever wealth he had he kept to himself without admitting others to its participation.
7. If a man does not like others, he avoids their association.



### III. RELATIVE.

#### § 102.

1. This Act is for the protection of official secrets, whose untimely revelation might be dangerous.

2. Students often do not receive that sort of education as may fit them for life.

3. Stone imparts to a residence that grandeur as may be given to a public building.

### IV. DEMONSTRATIVE.

#### § 103.

1. Our public men ask for the protection of our own industries, and not of the United Kingdom.

2. India is the motherland of Parsis just as much as it is of the Hindus.

3. Man should always be doing something to better his own condition as well as of his brethren.

### V. INDEFINITE.

#### § 104-5.

A request was made to Mr. W. and Mr. G., none of whom agreed to it.

## TEST PAPERS 5—(PRONOUNS)

### 5 A

(1) What dangers are there in using possessive pronouns as objective genitives? Illustrate your answer by any necessary corrections in the following sentences:—

1. Gothic architecture kindles every faculty in its workmen and addresses every emotion in its beholder.

2. He suddenly stopped and looked on both his sides.

3. The detective became suspicious of the door-keepers and was always on their watch.

4. Your very sight is repulsive to them.

5. Herein lies his difference from many other prominent men.

6. The facts are plain: their explanation, however, is not easy.

(2) When must the reflexive pronouns be used? Make, and explain, any necessary corrections in the following:—

1. Wherever beauty appears, it awakens love of it.
2. The suggestion has much in it to commend itself.
3. His amiable personality shone like a beacon and endeared himself to everyone.

### 5 B

(3) The Authorized Translation of the Bible of 1611 has the following passage in it:—

‘This my son was dead and is alive again; he was lost and is found.’

How would this be written in present-day English? Explain any alteration you make.

(4) Write notes on the wrong use of Indefinite Pronouns in the following sentences:—

1. None of the two communities is exclusively at fault.
2. The eloquence of Ruskin was one of the oratorical type.
3. It is almost impossible to get something like a middle class in this crowded city.

(5) Put the following sentence right:—

The drinking habit does not even leave the innocent babies as they inflict a terrible impression on their innocent minds the horrid scenes of quarrels of their parents.



## CHAPTER VI

## VERBS

A. *The Finite Verb*

§106. The Finite Verb, i.e., any form of the verb which can present a complete statement with the help of a subject and, sometimes, an object, is, in general, fairly well understood by students. There are, however, some uses under the heads of Tense, Aspect, Mood and Voice in which errors occur and which require further study.

1. *Tense*

§107. By means of Tense the finite verb expresses the time when an action is supposed to take place. Some tenses, however, also express rather the attitude of mind of the speaker than the time. These so-called Modal uses should receive particular attention; they occur in the Preterite, the Pluperfect and the Future tenses.

## THE TENSES CONSIDERED SINGLY.

§108. (a) *Present Tense*.

The present tense expresses not only an action or state thought of as present (Actual Present):—

*I think you are right.*

but may extend also to an action or state in the near future (Future Present):—

*He comes back next Monday.*

and may refer to an actual past when the speaker

transfers himself in thought to the past (Historical Present):—

(Description of a battle). The opposing troops *stand* to their arms. Hoarse words of command *are heard*. The artillery *opens* fire.

An important use of the Present is to refer to the future in adverbial clauses when the verb in the main clause expresses the future:—

He'll come even if it *costs* him a month's pay.  
It is this use of the Present which is generally forgotten.

### §109. (b) *Preterite Tense*.

The Preterite expresses a past action as separated completely from the present in the speaker's mind:—

He *came* back yesterday and *told* us all his experiences.

In subordinate clauses only, it has a common use to express an attitude of mind (Modal Preterite):—

It's high time we *did* something for him.

### §110. (c) *Perfect Tense*.

In contrast with the preterite, the Perfect tense expresses a past action as having some bearing on the present (Resultative Perfect):—

I see you *have* already *got* everything ready.

I *have* *gone* through all the papers and *found* nothing.

It may likewise express that a past action is continuing into the present (Continuative Perfect):—

This family *has* *given* public men to the city for over a century. (Suggestion: it still continues to give them.)

whereas a preterite (*gave*), in such a sentence, would suggest that the family had ceased to give public men to the city.



In adverbial clauses, after a main verb expressing a future, the Perfect expresses that the action of the clause will be past at that future time :—

You shall have the papers when I *have read* them through.

### § 111. (d) *Pluperfect Tense.*

The Pluperfect expresses the bearing of a past action on a later time that is itself already past :—

He *had* already *gone* before I reached his house.

He came back although I *had told* him not to.

In subordinate clauses only, it has a special use to express the speaker's attitude of mind (Modal Pluperfect).—

I wish he *had* not *said* that.

They cared for each other as though they *had been* brothers.

### § 112. (e) *Future Tenses.*

There are four tenses expressing the future in English. Three of them have valuable modal uses.

(i) The *Present Future* expresses an action as future from the standpoint of the present :—

I think you *will see* him.

(ii) The *Perfect Future* expresses that an action is thought of as complete at a future time :—

I *shall have finished* before you come back.

(iii) *Modal Present Future.* The Present Future may express an attitude of mind in the speaker. In the 1st person it expresses either a threat or a resolve, in the 2nd person a command without a doubt of obedience :—

I *shall take* that from you if you misuse it (Threat).

I *shall go* and see him and get it out of him (Determination).

You *will* take this letter to Mr. X. and *bring back* an answer (Command to a servant).

(iv) The *Preterite Future* and *Pluperfect Future* tenses, apart from their use in indirect speech, are always used modally. The *Preterite Future* then refers to present time, the *Pluperfect Future* to past time, chiefly in hypothetical statements (statements which have an *if* in the other clause):—

*I should send* him if he were fit (Pret. Fut.).

*I should have sent* him if he had been fit (Plup. Fut.).

They also express a modest wish:—

*I should like* to make his acquaintance.

*I should have liked* to be present.

### *Errors in the Use of Tenses*

Error 152. We *are not subscribing* to it so far.

*So far* expresses a time-period from the past into the present, therefore the perfect is the proper tense:—*We have not been subscribing* etc.

Error 153. I *just read* your advertisement, and beg to state . . . .

Again, *just* suggests a time immediately past and the writer goes on in the present to *beg to state*, therefore the perfect tense:—*I have just read*, etc.

Error 154. Some days ago I *had been* to witness a marriage.

This is a very common error, to use the pluperfect tense (in imitation of the vernacular, e.g. Marathi *mi gelo hoto*) instead of the preterite to express past time separate from the present. Correct is, of course, *I went*. In general, *went* seems almost an unknown word to many Indian students, so fond are they of the wrong pluperfect *had been* or *had gone*.



## 2. Aspect.

§113. Aspect is a term of grammar applied to a verb to express that phase of an action which the verb expresses.

That is to say, a verb may express an action as either (a) only begun, or (b) continuing, or (c) completed, or (d) repeated, or (e) resulting from a previous action.

For example,

(a) some verbs in *-en* express an action as only begun, e.g.:—*toadden*, *toadden* mean 'to become red (or sick)'. The aspect of these is called Inchoative (i.e., 'beginning to');

(b) verbs such as *to say*, *to sit*, *to hold*, describe continuing actions, and their aspect may be called Imperfective or Durative;

(c) verbs such as *to tell*, *to sit down*, *to seize*, describe the completed actions of *to say*, *to sit* and *to hold*, and their aspect may be called Perfective;

(d) some verbs in *-le*, *-er* express repetition of an action, e.g., *to sparkle*, *to crumble*, *to glitter*, *to clamber*, which mean 'to give off frequent sparks', 'to break into crumbs', etc. The aspect of these may be called Frequentative or Iterative;

(e) the verb *to come* can express a result from previous circumstances or actions, e.g., *How do you come to be so late?*, which suggests that the 'lateness' is the result of something. This aspect of *to come* may be called Resultative.

### THE PROGRESSIVE ASPECT.

§114. While the above forms of Aspect are interesting, there is one other form of far greater importance in English. This is the Progressive Aspect

(e.g. *I am talking, I was talking, etc.*), which is found with nearly all verbs, and in every tense and form of those verbs. Sentence-examples are the following:—

Prog. Present:—Don't interrupt me when I *am talking*.

Prog. Preterite:—He *was telling* me stories of his youth when you came up.

Prog. Perfect:—He *has been telling* me these stories all the morning.

Prog. Pluperfect:—He *had been telling* me them before you came.

Prog. Future:—Next week we *shall be sight-seeing* in London.

Prog. Pret. Future:—We *should be going* home; it's already late.

Prog. Perf. Future:—I *shall have been living* here ten years, come Michaelmas.

Prog. Pluperfect Future:—She *would have been talking* till now if I had let her.

Prog. Imperative:—*Don't be looking* over my shoulder while I read.

Prog. Pres. Inf. with *to*:—I expect *to be looking* you up soon.

Prog. Perf. Inf. with *to*:—We hoped *to have been finishing* this business sooner.

Plain Prog. Pres. Infin.:—Why must he *be sending* us such things?

Plain Prog. Perf. Infin.:—He could *have been doing* things much more worth while.

## USES OF THE PROGRESSIVE ASPECT.

§115. The Progressive Aspect has two uses. First, it expresses duration of an action over a period of time, a period often preceding and running into or even following a point of time which is either understood or expressed (e.g., by a sub-clause beginning with *when, as, while, etc.*)



The difference between the Progressive and the non-Progressive tenses is shown in the following diagrams of two simultaneous actions:—

- (a) Both non-Progressive:—  $\left| \begin{array}{c} \text{We talked} \\ \text{while we walked} \end{array} \right|$
- (b) 1st Progressive, ——— We were talking ———  
2nd non-Progressive  $\left| \begin{array}{c} \text{while we walked} \end{array} \right|$
- (c) 1st non-Progressive  $\left| \begin{array}{c} \text{We talked} \end{array} \right|$   
2nd Progressive ——— while we were walking ———
- (d) Both Progressive ——— We were talking ———  
———— while we were walking ———

These diagrams are an attempt to show how the Progressive action 'encloses' the non-Progressive one, i.e., both precedes and follows it.

§116. Second, the Progressive forms introduce more emotion into what is said. They invite the interest of the listener, are more friendly and conversational. The non-Progressive forms, on the other hand, are more formal in tone. Also, in the present tense especially, they express a habit without reference to time, i.e., they tend to be timeless, while the Progressive present refers to one single action at a given time, present or future. For example, compare the Progressive present tenses in:—

*I am staying* at home to-day, but to-morrow *I am going* up to London.

in their conversational warmth and reference to a particular time, with the non-Progressive:—

*I stay* at home the rest of the week, but on Tuesdays *I go* up to London.

with its cold formality and its suggestion of the 'staying' and 'going' as habitual acts.

It is to be noted, however, that the Progressive present can also express a habit if it is qualified by an adverb such as *always*, *constantly*, etc.:—

*He is always talking about himself.*

§117. There are some verbs, however, which are seldom, in some cases never, used in Progressive forms because their meaning does not allow of it. Thus, verbs denoting a state of body (*to sit, stand, lie, hang, wait*) have Progressive forms but often avoid using them because their meaning of state or condition is already enduring, and therefore further expression of duration is unnecessary, e.g.:—

*I have waited over an hour for you.*

expresses duration of 'waiting' just as effectively as *I have been waiting*, etc. Then, also, verbs expressing states of mind (*to feel, know, like, love, hate*, etc.) very seldom use Progressive forms since their meaning includes that of duration.

### *Errors in Aspect*

The commonest error in Aspect is to use the Progressive forms where the non-Progressive are required. This is due to ignorance that timelessness of an action is expressed by the non-Progressive forms, while the Progressive forms lay some emphasis on the action as taking place at some definite time given or suggested in the context. Occasionally, the converse error—non-Progressive for correct Progressive—is made.

Error 155. *Man is suffering* throughout his life; it is a law of nature.

The writer should have seen that a 'law of Nature' is timeless and that, therefore, *Man suffers*, i.e. in the non-Progressive present.

Error 156. The illustrious and broad-minded Ramana, whose warmth of heart was *embracing* the whole of mankind. . . .



Ramanuja's warmth of heart was timeless and permanent, therefore the Progressive *was embracing*, which suggests a definite period of time, should be non-Progressive *embraced*.

Error 157. *I should be giving* a one-sided account if I were to avoid mentioning . . . .

Error 158. *I should have been failing* in my duty if I had not given its due weight to that topic.

In both the above no continuous time is to be expressed, but only a hypothetical fact without time. Therefore, the non-Progressive *I should give* and *I should have failed* are the proper forms.

Error 159. You must *be knowing* me, Sir.

Error 160. If people are made to think that they can *be committing* any excess with impunity . . . .

The first of the above sentences is the way a former student generally tries to recall himself to his professor. But, *to know* is a state of mind already continuous, and the Progressive *be knowing* is superfluous. In addition, the *must* sounds too much like a command. To suggest uncertainty, drop *must* and write instead *surely*, i.e. *Surely you know me, Sir*.

In the second sentence no special time is given or suggested for the 'committing' and, therefore, no continuing during that time is possible. The timeless *can commit* must be used.

Error 161. All lorries have been commandeered by Government for relief work which *is carried* on vigorously.

Error 162. Certain persons were crushed under armoured cars. People *began* to pick up the injured when fire was opened.

The above two are errors of the opposite type. In both cases, Progressive forms—*is being carried on* and *were beginning*—should have been used, for, in the first, the relief work was a continuous process and, in the second, the action of picking up the injured was in process before fire was opened and continued until at least that moment, if not afterwards.

## 3. Mood

§118. A verb has various forms according to the mental attitude of the speaker towards the action, state or occurrence of which he is speaking. These forms, called Moods, are four in number and are exemplified in the following sentences:—

- (a) I *sent* him a letter and he *hasn't replied*.
- (b) *Come* back and *tell* us what success you've had.
- (c) If I *were* you, I should take no notice.
- (d) Oh, *do tell* us what he said! You *must*!

The verbs in (a) indicate an attitude of plain assertion and are called forms of the Indicative Mood; those in (b) indicate an attitude of command or entreaty and are forms of the Imperative Mood; that in (c) indicates an attitude of sympathy which suggests possibility or condition and is a form of the Subjunctive Mood; and those in (d) indicate an attitude of urgency and are forms of the Emphatic Mood.

## THE SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

§119. Apart from the Indicative Mood, the tenses of which have been sufficiently treated, only the Subjunctive needs attention, and that only a little, for errors are not frequent with it.

Only the verb *to be* and one or two others have forms of the subjunctive left, and only *I were* and *he (she) were* are still used in common speech, though these are used regularly in clauses of unreal condition. In literary English, one still comes across it in either of the two following uses:—

(i) to express a wish or a concession, i.e., as an optative:—

*Suffice it* to say that he *found* the support which he needed.



I will arrange that he *be taken* back at once.

*Be it* right or wrong, it has happened.

If only *he were* true to his word, we could proceed with confidence.

(ii) to express possibility, i.e., as a potential:—

Such a man—if there *be* one—is unworthy of his country.

It looks as though everyone *were* against him.

It is noticeable that the Subjunctive is either introduced by a conjunction (*that, if, etc.*) or shown by inverting the order of subject and verb (*Suffice it; Be it*).

#### *Error in Mood*

The use of the Subjunctive to express concession is sometimes misunderstood.

Error 163. Whatever he admires—*may it be* good or bad—influences his mind.

*May it be* expresses a wish, not a concession, which is expressed by *be it*.

#### 4. *Voice*

§120. Voice is the form of a transitive verb which allows either the doer or the sufferer of an action to be made the subject of the verb. Thus:—

(1) The judge instructed the jury.

(2) The jury were instructed by the judge.

are two ways of saying the same thing, but in (1) the doer, *the judge*, is made the subject of the verb *instructed*, which is said to be in the Active Voice, while in (2) the sufferer, *the jury*, becomes the subject of *were instructed*, which is said to be in the Passive Voice.

§121. The two conditions, then, under which a passive construction is possible are (i) that the verb

should be transitive; (ii) that the word to be made the subject of the passive construction should be the object of the active verb.

English has a very highly developed series of passive constructions, as the following examples will show:—

(a) *Transitive verb with one Object.*

(Active)

The artillery *have abandoned* the guns.  
becomes (Passive):—

The guns *have been abandoned* by the artillery.  
or, with introductory *there* in order to move the new subject to a more emphatic place in the middle of the sentence:—

*There have been* guns abandoned by the artillery.  
or, if a relative clause to *guns* is to follow, to put *guns* at the end of the sentence:—

*There have been abandoned* by the artillery guns . . . .

A special case of the passive from one object is when that object is a prepositional one, e.g.:—

*They have thought of* a suitable man.

Here the verb and preposition act as a unit, so that a passive is still possible:—

A suitable man *has been thought of* by them.

(b) *Transitive Verb with Accusative and Infinitive.*

§122. Here the single object has been extended by carrying an infinitive after it:—

The general *ordered the artillery to fire*.

Here, *artillery*, being part of the object, may still become the subject of a passive construction, the remainder of the object (*to fire*) following the verb:—

The artillery *were ordered to fire* by the general.



The final development of this is when the infinitive in the active construction is already a passive one:—

The general *ordered* the artillery *to be brought up*.

Like the former, this turns also into the passive, since the new subject (*artillery*) is still the object of the former active verb:—

The artillery *was ordered* by the general *to be brought up*.

This is the true Double Passive, both verb-forms (*was ordered* and *to be brought up*) being in the passive. The construction is only possible when the subject of the passive has been the object of the main active verb.

(c) *Transitive Verb with Two Objects (Direct and Indirect.)*

§123. Since there are two objects in such a sentence as:—

They have sent *me* the wrong *book*.

and English has lost any distinction of case between them, two passive constructions are possible, each object becoming subject in turn while the other object is retained:—

The wrong *book* has been sent *me*.

*I* have been sent the wrong *book*.

§124. (d) *Transitive Verb with Direct Object and Prepositional Object.*

An example of this in the active is:—

They have sent *their servant* *for* the *book*.

in which *servant* is the direct object of *sent*, while *book* is the object of the following preposition *for*.

Obviously, only *servant* can become the subject of a passive construction :—

Their *servant* has been sent for the book.

There are, however, some phrases made up of a verb plus direct object plus preposition which make single units, such as :—*to pay attention to, to make an end of, to put an end to, to lose sight of, to set fire to, to take notice of, to get the better of, to lay stress upon*. These are felt as compound verb-phrases, and a noun put after them is felt to be the object of the verb-phrase, not of the preposition. So, with these, a passive is possible, and

The nurse *took great care of* the child.  
can become :—

The child *was taken great care of* by the nurse.

### *Errors in Voice*

Mainly, these are due to a wrong use of the Double Passive. Sometimes, also, a passive construction is attempted with an intransitive verb.

Error 164. The general massive outline of the building *can be said* as its ornament.

*To say* is only partially transitive, since it can take only pronouns (*He said this*) or noun clauses (*They said he was there*) as objects. It cannot take a noun-object, and *outline* is not its object in an active construction corresponding to the passive above. In fact, there is no corresponding active construction. Correct by using a fully transitive verb of similar meaning, e.g. *describe* (*can be described as its ornament*) or else the infinitive construction with *say* (*can be said to be its ornament*) which is the passive of the noun-clause construction in the active *They say that the . . . outline . . . is its ornament*.

Error 165. These emotions *are tried to be expressed*.

Error 166. The conference *was resolved to be held* on the 5th of June.



The above are typical errors with the Double Passive. They are wrong because, in the corresponding active constructions, the passive-subject *emotions* and *conference* are not the objects of the finite verbs *tried* and *resolved*, as would be necessary for a true passive, but of the infinitives *express* and *hold* (not passives, by the way). The original actives would run:—

He tried to express these emotions.

They resolved to hold the conference on the 5th of June.

There is no passive to the former sentence. The latter can be turned into a passive only with formal *it*:—*It was resolved to hold the conference*, etc. If a passive is needed for the idea in the former sentence, it must be given an object to the finite verb in the active, e.g.:—*He made an attempt to express these emotions*, which then becomes *An attempt was made to express*, etc.

Error 167. The partition of Bengal *was sought to be retaliated* by the boycott of English goods.

A worse error with the Double Passive. Not only is *partition* not the object of *sought* in the active construction, but *retaliated* is not a transitive verb and cannot, therefore, have a passive. The active construction would read:—*They sought to retaliate for the partition of Bengal with the boycott of English goods*, and the only possible passive is to *sought* with the help of formal *it*:—*It was sought to retaliate*, etc.

Error 168. The student *has been conferred* a degree.

Here the passive construction has been turned upside down. In the corresponding active (*They conferred a degree upon the student*), not *student* but *degree* is the object of *conferred*, and the true passive is:—*A degree has been conferred upon the student*.

From the above errors and corrections in Voice emerge three main considerations:—

(i) No passive must be attempted till the corresponding active construction is quite clear, and then the object of the main verb in the active must be the only subject for the passive.

(ii) If, in the active, the object of the main verb is an infinitive (They decided *to send* a representative), then the only passive possible is one with formal *it* as subject and the main verb alone in the passive (*It was decided to send*, etc.). Even then, the main verb must be a fully transitive one (e.g. *They wished to send a representative* will not go into the passive).

(iii) Very great care must be taken with the Double Passive construction.

## EXERCISES ON CHAPTER VI

### FINITE VERB

Correct any errors in the uses of the Finite Verb in the following sentences, according to the paragraph named :—

*Tense.*

§108.

If any one of them will speak evil of the others, do not believe him.

§110.

Mr. F. of Wazirabad, who was here for the last few days and was leading the procession, was also served with a warrant of arrest.

§111.

1. The Imperial forces no sooner retired than the Sikhs emerged from their fastnesses.

2. The Association was founded scarcely a few years before it had the joy of seeing its purposes fulfilled.

*Aspect.*

§115.

1. It is not the first time that we are referring to this question.

2. He is proposing to replace the guards of trains with women.

3. As there were lathi charges on all sides, some Red Cross volunteers were running from one end to the other with stretchers and there was confusion everywhere.



*Mood.*

§ 119.

1. We congratulate them on the happy example they have set, and wish that it is largely followed.

2. The Begum is one of the most enlightened of our Indian rulers and we wish her example was followed by more of her rank.

*Voice.*

§ 121.

1. One fact has been specially laid stress upon.

2. They were not allowed to be supplied with food and water.

§ 122.

India will be sought to be persuaded that free trade is the only sound policy for her.

## TEST PAPERS 6—(THE FINITE VERB)

### 6 A

(1) Explain carefully the use of the Perfect Tense in English. In accordance with your answer correct any misuse of it in the following sentences:—

1. Piece-goods are being intensively boycotted during the last few days.

2. The proceedings of the Conference, which just closed its sittings, were more lively than usual.

3. He is an excellent speaker, and in his profession he had easily taken the lead in Madras.

### 6 B

(2) What do you understand by the Aspect of a verb? Enumerate, with examples, six kinds of Aspect in verbs.

(3) What errors in Aspect are present in the following sentences, and how would you correct them?

1. Their co-operation will be found very valuable in *knowing* the previous history of the students.
2. They *prick* thorns and pins into the bodies of the volunteers.
3. A Burman has cut off his wife's nose, as she had not *kept* his meal ready at the proper time.
4. Everything is as it was; even the deceased's books are *kept* untouched.
5. Where is my hat that I *kept* on the table?
6. He became angry with me, and I *kept* quiet.

## 6 C

(4) What kinds of objects in an Active construction may become the subjects of a corresponding Passive construction in English? Give one example of each.

(5) Show what is wrong with the following passive constructions:—

1. How are the quarter of a million surplus miners to be found work?
2. We heard the name of one mountain and were mentioned the other four.
3. Outram was thrice attempted to be killed at the ruler's court.
4. This and certain other precautions are believed to have been taken to arrest the Jatha.
5. No Government can be subject to any condition sought to be imposed under the menace of unlawful action by any political organisation.
6. Obedience is a valuable virtue, but it is sometimes sought to be discarded.
7. Matters of no importance are sometimes sought to be invested with the greatest significance.



## CHAPTER VII

### VERBS

#### B. *The Non-Finite Verb*

##### PARTS.

§125. The non-finite parts of a verb are the following:—

- I. The Plain Infinitive;
- II. The Infinitive with *to*;
- III. The Gerund, which is the form in *-ing* acting as a noun;
- IV. Two Participles, i.e. the Past Participle (which has generally the same form as the Preterite tense), and the Present Participle, which is the form in *-ing* acting as an adjective.

There are certain uses of each of these which, being imperfectly understood, cause errors and will, therefore, be specially treated. Other uses of interest will be summarised.

##### I. *The Plain Infinitive*

§126. This is the infinitive without *to* and must be considered as quite a distinct form of the verb from the infinitive with *to* because its uses are quite different. It has two main uses and one subsidiary one.

The main uses are:—

(1) after the five modal verbs *can*, *may*, *shall*, *will*, *must* used as auxiliaries:—

If I *can* find time I *will* do it.

He *must* and *shall* listen to you.

(but the other infinitive is used with *ought* and *used*:—He *ought to know* it because he *used to teach* me),

It is used also after the modal preterite *had* with a comparative or superlative adverb (*better, rather, sooner, best*), also after *would rather* :—

He *had best* find out quickly.

I *would rather* come to-morrow.

And it is used after *dare* and *need* in the negative and interrogative :—

I *need not* tell you how glad we were.

*Dare* you go out alone?

§127. (2) The second, and very common, use is in accusative and infinitive constructions after the verbs *feel, hear, see, watch, let, make, bid, help*. After *make, bid, help* the infinitive with *to* can also be used :—

*Let him try!*

We *saw him turn* the corner.

Do *make him lift* the box carefully!

I *helped him do it* (or *to do it*).

### THE CO-ORDINATED PLAIN INFINITIVE.

§128. When a main verb governs two or more infinitives joined by co-ordinating conjunctions, the second and later infinitives are normally put in the Plain form—even if the first infinitive has *to* :—

He told me *to go* and *find* them and *fetch* them back.

This is called the Co-ordinated Plain Infinitive and is regular after *or, but, than* as well as *and* :—

We ought to do more than *send* a subscription.

What else was I to do but *return* it?

Would it be wiser to reply or *be* silent?

### *Errors with the Co-ordinated Plain Infinitive*

It is this form of the Plain Infinitive which is not properly understood. Often the verbal form in *-ing* is wrongly substituted for it.



Error 169. What have officers of the subordinate service to do but *obeying* the orders of their superiors?

Error 170. We cannot do better than finally *quoting* the full text.

In the former sentence the first subordinate infinitive (*to do*) is followed by the conjunction *but* and then by a non-finite verb (*obeying*) which should be the plain infinitive co-ordinated with it, i.e. *to do but obey*. In the second sentence, the first subordinate infinitive (*do*) is itself Plain; all the more reason, therefore, that the non-finite verb joined to it by *than* should be another Plain Infinitive:—  
*We cannot do better than finally quote*, etc.

## II. The Infinitive with *to*

§129. The infinitive with *to* has two main uses.

(1) The first of these is to express purpose or result as an adjunct after a verb or noun or adjective:—

(Verb) The boy *went up* to the gentleman *to enquire* the time.

(Noun) Mrs. X. would be the *woman to do* it.

(Adj.) Do you think it was *wise to say* that?

Instead of *to*, the infinitive may take *in order to* if the idea of purpose is to be emphasized:—

We shall have to make wide enquiries *in order to get* any result.

and if the verb, noun or adjective taking the infinitive is itself qualified by either *so* or *such*, the infinitive must take the compound prefix *as to*:—

I did not think that he would be *so foolish* (or *such a fool*) *as to do* that.

Likewise, if the infinitive stands for a question which has been or might be asked, then it must be connected with its head-verb by an interrogative pronoun, adverb or conjunction:—

(Adverb) I don't know *how to reply* to this letter  
(suggests the question *How shall I reply to this letter?*).

(Pronoun) The boy does not know *what to do* with himself (i.e. *What shall I do with myself?*).

(Conjunction) We were not sure *whether to include* him or not (i.e. *Shall we include him or not?*).

§130. (2) The second, and very common, use of the infinitive with *to* is the accusative and infinitive construction, e.g. :—

I have told *him to come* to-morrow.

in which the accusative *him* is the subject of the infinitive *to come*, and *him to come* is an accusative and infinitive construction.

There are three groups of verbs which take the accusative and infinitive construction :—

(a) Verbs expressing 'will', viz. :—*to order, command, compel, cause, force, get, allow, oblige, persuade, permit, tell, request*, etc. For example :—

I have got *him to change* his mind.

Our forces compelled *the enemy to retire*.

(b) Verbs expressing 'wish', e.g. :—*to desire, want, wish, like, prefer, hate*, etc. For example :—

I hate *him to talk* like that.

The Committee desired *him to accept* the presidentship.

(c) Verbs of 'thinking and declaring', e.g. :—('thinking') *to believe, consider, assume, discover, doubt, expect, fear, find, imagine, know, perceive, recognize, remember, suppose, suspect, think, trust, understand*; ('declaring') *to admit, assert, confess, declare, deny, maintain, pronounce, report, state*. For example :—

I expected *you to come* earlier.

He declared *this to be* the truth.

With these verbs, however, the infinitive does not



express purpose, nor is it adverbial but predicative. Some of these verbs can take another construction after them, viz., the accusative and present participle :—

*I remember him being* present on that occasion.

though this is rather different in meaning from the accusative and infinitive :—*I remember him to have been* present on that occasion.

(Of course, these verbs of 'thinking and declaring' can, instead of the accusative and infinitive, take a noun clause with the same meaning :—*I supposed him to be capable of it* and *I supposed that he was capable of it* are both possible and mean the same thing. The noun-clause construction is possible after only some of the verbs of 'wishing', not *want* or *wish* or *like*. Similarly, the verbs of 'willing' are divided; some, like *order*, *command*, *persuade*, *request*, are capable of taking a noun-clause: others, like *force*, *get*, *allow*, *oblige*, *tell*, are incapable. For those who are not sure, it is safest to use nothing but the accusative after verbs of 'willing' and 'wishing'.)

#### THE PERFECT INFINITIVE WITH *to*.

§131. While the Infinitive with *to* expresses no particular time, there is a Perfect Infinitive with *to* which has some reference to time. It is formed with *to have* and the past participle of a verb and has two uses :—

(i) To express what is past with regard to the time of the main verb :—

He *pretends to have known* all the great men of the day (Perfect).

He *pretended to have known* all the great men of the day (Plup.).

(ii) To express the mood of the speaker (Modal use) :—

We *wanted to have come* earlier, but we could not. Here the speaker could equally well have said, *We*

wanted to come earlier, so far as time is concerned, but said to have come in order to express greater urgency of desire, i.e., a mood or state of mind.

### PASSIVE INFINITIVE WITH *to*.

§132. The infinitive with *to* is neutral as regards voice as well as tense. That is, it is very common to find the active infinitive with *to* used in a passive sense :—

The reason is not difficult *to find* (i.e. to be found).  
We went, but there was nothing *to see* (i.e. to be seen).  
If he does not do what he cannot, is he *to blame*?  
(i.e. to be blamed).

There is a passive infinitive with *to*, often used as an adjunct to nouns and adjectives. For instance, the second and third sentences above might have been written :—

We went, but there was nothing *to be seen*.  
If he does not do what he cannot, is he *to be blamed*?

The active form is, however, much commoner, and often cannot be replaced by the passive form. For instance, the first sentence above must remain *difficult to find*, and the following are similar instances :—

This matter is a hard nut *to crack*.  
He is not a safe man *to offend*.  
I cannot say he is interesting *to look at*.

The passive infinitive with *to* is used in the accusative and infinitive construction :—

He would not allow *the matter to be mentioned*,  
and, since *matter* is the object of the head-verb *allow*, it can become the subject of a double passive construction :—

The matter *is not allowed to be mentioned*.



# VERBS

## *Errors with the Infinitive with to*

In general, it must be said that the infinitive with *to* is not used by any means often enough. Its uses, especially that of the accusative and infinitive with *to*, do not appear to be generally known.

Error 171. One has to paint these things in *such a way as one will be able to* . . . .

is a very clumsy and practically impossible way of expressing purpose. The writer does not seem to know that the infinitive with *to* is the special instrument in English for expressing purpose or result and that it will do his work in this sentence cleanly and quickly:—

One has to paint these things *so as to be able to* . . . .

Error 172. Do you know to ride?

An infinitive with *to* used as an interrogative adjunct must be introduced by an interrogative word:—Do you know *how to ride*?

Error 173. He does not *like that the artist should be* a mere unthinking tool.

Error 174. Socialism *wants that the Government of a country should not be* autocratic.

The above are examples of another common error, viz., to make all verbs of 'wishing' and 'willing' take noun-clauses after them. A few of them can do so, but *like* and *want* cannot; in any case, the accusative and infinitive should be used with all these verbs:—

He does not *like the artist to be* a mere unthinking tool.

Socialism *wants the Government of a country not to be* autocratic.

Error 175. They *suppose goblins as the forms of* wicked dead persons.

*Suppose* is a verb of 'thinking and declaring' and takes the accusative and infinitive with *to*:—*They suppose goblins to be the forms, etc.*

Sometimes a writer uses the accusative and infinitive with *to* with a head-verb which does not take that

construction, i.e. he does not know what verbs do, and what verbs do not, construe in this way. E.g.:—

Error 176. The servants *are informed to tell* visitors that their mistress is not at home.

is wrong because *inform* does not take the accusative and infinitive but a noun-clause (*informed that they must tell*, etc.). Perhaps the writer was misled by the fact that the synonymous verb *to tell* does take the accusative and infinitive. (The servants *are told to tell*, etc.).

Also, care must be taken that the accusative, in this construction, represents the real subject of the infinitive. E.g., in:—

Error 177. He (A) *requests him* (B) *to know* about his (B's) success.

*him* does not refer to the real subject of *to know*, which is (A). To correct, either use another synonymous verb in the infinitive which can take (A) as subject; or else change the construction:—

He (A) *requests him* (B) *to give news* of his (B's) success.

He (A) *requests information from him* (B) about his (B's) success.

Error 178. He always *seemed to have been* unconscious of his own greatness.

A typical error with the perfect infinitive, whose uses are not well understood. Here, 'he' was not 'unconscious' before he 'seemed' (previous time of perfect infinitive), nor is the writer expressing an attitude of mind (Modal use) about 'him' but stating a fact. The right form is the Present Infinitive with *to*:—

He always *seemed to be* unconscious of, etc.  
which gives the correct impression, viz., that the 'seeming' and the 'being unconscious' were of the same time.

### III. The Gerund

§133. The gerund is the verbal form in *-ing* used as a noun. Being a noun, it can be used:—



(a) as the subject or nominal predicate of a verb :—

*Swimming* (subj.) is a healthy exercise.

A healthy exercise is *swimming* (nom. pred.).

(b) as the object of a verb or preposition :—

I prefer *riding* to *swimming*.

(c) as a prepositional adjunct to (i) nouns, (ii) adjectives, or (iii) verbs :—

(i) There is no *sense* in *saying* such things.

(ii) This field is not *suitable* for *playing* in.

(iii) They have not *succeeded* in *finding* him.

This last sentence shows that the gerund keeps something of the character of a verb, for it (*finding*) can also govern an object (*him*) of its own.

§134. After a few adjectives (*worth*, *near*, *busy*, *like*), the gerund is used without a preposition and becomes an object to the adjective, not an adverbial adjunct :—

These boots are not *worth mending*.

She came *near weeping*.

I found him *busy preparing* his lessons.

For some people there is no pleasure *like eating*.

*Near* can also be used, in the same meaning, with to :—*She came near to weeping*.

§135. The gerund can be introduced by both provisional *it* and introductory *there* (with *to be*), itself coming after the verb :—

*It* seems no good *asking* him to come.

*There* was much *running* hither and thither.

#### VERBAL CHARACTER OF THE GERUND.

§136. Being a verb, as well as a noun, the gerund (a) can carry a subject of its own; (b) has connections with Tense and Voice.

(a) *Subject.*

No subject is given when it can be judged from the context :—

*I like solving problems (subject I).*

*Advising friends is a profitless task.*

When a subject must be expressed, it is a genitive at the beginning of a sentence :—

*Mr. X.'s (or His) being* there was most unexpected.  
otherwise a noun or pronoun in the accusative case :—

*We're afraid of the master (or him) spying* around.

*He cannot stand anyone scolding* him.

*I am averse to that happening* again.

When the subject is a noun or pronoun, object of the finite verb or a preposition, it may be put into either the accusative or genitive, according as the gerund is felt to be a verb or a noun :—

*He cannot stop me going* (felt as verb).

*He cannot stop my going* (felt as noun).

*We objected to him (or his) coming* with us.

§137. (b) *Tense.*

Because of its noun-character, the simple gerund expresses no particular time but takes it from the context :—

*It's nice having* you with us just now (Present).

*I propose going* to see him *to-morrow* (Future).

*There was no holding* him back (Past).

*He is fond of eating* chutney (Timeless Present).

There is a Perfect Gerund which shows a time earlier than that of the main verb :—

*I remember having heard* something of this before.



§138. (c) *Voice*.

Being verbal, the gerund can express voice. Its uses here are, however, peculiar, especially the Activo-Passive use.

The gerund of a verb used intransitively has, of course, no voice :—

We have looked forward greatly to your *coming*.

The gerund of a verb used transitively may have an active sense :—

You waste your time *giving* him advice.

but, with such verbs, the gerund may carry a passive sense, though active in form :—

The story was excellent and did not lose *in the telling*  
(i.e. *in being told*).

This Activo-Passive use is specially frequent :—

(i) after the verbs *to deserve, need, require, want* ('need'), *bear* (in negative and interrogative sentences) :—

This picture *deserves framing* well (i.e. *being well framed*).

That rose-bush *wants (needs, requires) pruning*; it will *not bear transplanting*.

(ii) as an adjunct to the adjective *worth* or the phrase *worth while*, and after the prepositions *beyond past* :—

These verses are *worth preserving* (i.e. *being preserved*).

This nuisance is *past bearing* (i.e. *being borne*).

Apart from these special cases, a passive meaning is generally expressed by the passive simple or perfect gerund :—

He hates *being stared at*.

He denied *having been refused* admission.

## WRITTEN ENGLISH

*Errors with the Gerund*

Apart from the cardinal error of confusing the use of the gerund with that of the infinitive with *to*, which is dealt with later, mistakes are made with the gerund in the following two uses:—

- (1) Its use as a prepositional adjunct to verbs.

Error 179. Some people take a *pride that they are rich and fortunate*.

The error here is in thinking that *pride* can be followed by a noun-clause. But *pride* takes the preposition *in*, requiring an object with the character of a noun, i.e. the gerund:—*take a pride in being rich*, etc.

Error 180. They *employ themselves in* various ways, *such as they play cricket or go for a walk*.

Here the error is like the former. The verbs *play* and *go* are the objects of *in* after *employ themselves* and must be put in the verbal-noun form, i.e. the gerund:—*such as playing cricket or going for a walk*.

- (2) Its activo-passive use after certain head-words, e.g., *worth* and *deserve*:—

Error 181. Mr. J.'s suggestion is *worth being taken up*.

Error 182. The advice *deserves being noted*.

In both the above, the active form of the gerund would express the passive sense required, and it must be used:—*worth taking up* and *deserves noting*.

Error 183. The retraction and repudiation will not be deemed *worth while to be republished*.

After *worth while*, not a passive infinitive with *to* but the active gerund must be used:—*worth while republishing*.

### INFINITIVE WITH *to* AND GERUND COMPARED.

§139. Both these forms of the non-finite verb are verbal nouns and have, therefore, some functions which are alike. Each has, however, other functions peculiar to itself, and in these the one form must not



be used for the other. Here the resemblances are taken first, then the differences.

### A. Resemblances.

(1) Both can become subject or object of a finite verb :—

*To tell* the truth needs courage.

*Telling* the truth needs courage.

I hate *to tell* him.

I hate *telling* him.

There is, however, a fine difference of meaning between the two constructions. The infinitive suggests a particular occasion, the gerund a general practice; that is, there is a difference of Aspect, the infinitive suggesting time and being perfective, the gerund being timeless and durative.

Sometimes these differences are so slight as not to be worth notice; that is, the following pairs of sentences mean practically the same thing :—

It is no use *to tell* him.

It is no use *telling* him.

He began *to make* a noise.

He began *making* a noise.

§140. (2) Both can be used as prepositional adjuncts to verbs, nouns and adjectives. Here it is best to distinguish between (a) verbs, nouns and adjectives which take *to*, and (b) verbs, etc., which take another preposition than *to*, especially those which may take *for*.

(a) Verbs, etc., taking *to* normally take an infinitive after the *to*. There are, however, a few such head-words which take either *to* with the infinitive or *to* with the gerund, viz.,—*to set oneself to*, *go to*,

*feel a dislike to, find means to, accustomed to, necessary to, near to :—*

Such are the qualities that *go to make* (or *making*) a successful business man.

I did not recognize you, because I am not *accustomed to see* (or *seeing*) you without your hat on.

A few other head-words there are which take only *to* with the gerund, not the infinitive with *to* :—*to commit oneself to, confess to, object to; objection to, resistance to, view to; equal to, unequal to :—*

I have no *objection to your going*.

He was *unequal to performing* the task.

(b) Here the main rule is simple to observe: a head-word construed with any other preposition than *to* takes the gerund after the preposition, not the infinitive :—

He *aimed at becoming* king.

She was *intent on winning* the prize.

They had no *intention of obeying*.

Two considerations, however, remain under this head :—(i) head-words which take both another preposition and *to*; (ii) head-words which regularly take *for* with a noun-object to express purpose.

(i) There is a number of head-words which can take *to* or another preposition, generally without difference of meaning :—*to aim at* or *to*; *ambition of* or *to*, *act of* or *to*, *chance of* or *to*, *charge of* or *to*, *honour of* or *to*, *intention of* or *to*, *motive for* or *to*; *surprised at* or *to*, *right in* or *to*. With these, of course, two constructions are possible, one with *to* and the infinitive, the other with the other preposition and the gerund :—

He *aimed to become* (or *at becoming*) king.

They had no *intention to obey* (or *of obeying*).

I was *surprised to see* (or *at seeing*) you.



(ii) Both *to* with an infinitive and *for* with a noun may express purpose (I have *come to see* you; I have *come for a book*), but, in such a case, the noun cannot be replaced by a gerund (I have *come for getting a book* is impossible); it must be replaced by an infinitive (I have *come to get* a book), since it is the infinitive with *to* which expresses purpose in the non-finite verb, not the gerund:—

I have been *asked for a lecture* (or *to give a lecture*).

A graduate is *wanted for Sanskrit* (or *to teach Sanskrit*), unless the gerund can be made into a noun by putting *the* before it:—

Tons of soil are *wanted for the filling* of this old pit.

The above may sound complicated, for no language is easy to reduce to rule. The safe method with head-words that take *for* with a noun to express purpose is, when a verbal form has to follow them, to use *to* with the infinitive.

Only one important detail has to be added: *for* with the gerund may express purpose if the gerund is being used activo-passively:—

The cricket field is not *fit for playing on* (i.e. for being played on).

#### §141. B. *Differences.*

The infinitive with *to* and the gerund have three or four uses each, and they entirely differ from each other in all of them. Of these only one needs emphasis here, viz.:—purpose or result in a verb-adjunct must be expressed by *to* with the infinitive, though in a noun-adjunct it may be expressed by *for* with the noun. If, with some head-words, *to* with the gerund is found, then this *to* does not express purpose or result.

### *Errors with the Infinitive with to and the Gerund*

Perhaps the chiefest error of all with the non-finite verb is to use the gerund after *for* to express purpose, since only the infinitive with *to* (and, very occasionally, the activo-passive gerund) is able to do this. Below is given a number of errors of this kind, and it is shown that correction may be made in a variety of ways, substituting either the infinitive with *to* or a noun or some other construction instead of the gerund.

Error 184. Several beggars *came for begging* and caused trouble.

Error 185. One must *peruse* the original *for realizing* in full its mastery over our hearts.

Error 186. A strong *desire* prevails here *for requesting* Mr. T. to accept the presidentship.

Above are three typical examples of the error. *For* would be correct after the head-words *came*, *peruse*, *desire* to express purpose if a noun were the object (*came for bread*, *peruse for pleasure*, *desire for gain*), but, if a verbal form is to express purpose after these head-words, it must be the infinitive with *to*:—*came to beg*; *peruse . . . to realize*; *desire . . . to request*.

Error 187. *Wanted*, a graduate *for teaching* mathematics.

Error 188. What *measures* were taken *for filling* a seat in the House of Lords.

The same error is again illustrated here, but for correction either an infinitive with *to* could be used (*to teach*; *to fill*) or else the gerund could be made more completely into a noun by placing *the* before and *of* after it:—*for the teaching of mathematics*; *for the filling of a seat*, etc.

Error 189. They have *applied for quashing* the committal order.

Here the proper construction would be either *for the quashing of* or *for* with the accusative and passive infinitive:—*for the committal order to be quashed*.

Error 190. It was resolved to submit a memorial to



Government *asking for legalizing* certain marriage reforms.

Error 191. Contentment is the *principal thing for our being happy*.

Both the above require the prepositional accusative and infinitive with *to*:—*to submit a memorial asking Government to legalize; for us to be happy*. In the latter sentence, also, the gerund might be replaced by a noun:—*for our happiness*.

Error 192. *Applications* have been received from students *for being admitted* as readers in the library.

Here, after the head-word *applications*, the best construction is *for* and a noun, instead of the passive gerund (*being admitted*):—*for admission*.

Error 193. These papers are *circulated* to the Library Committee *for being finally passed*.

Error 194. The Gaekwar has *sent* Rs. 400 *for being given* as prizes.

Occasionally, as with the above passive gerunds (*being passed, being given*) a possible correction is the active gerund with passive meaning after *for*:—*for final passing, for giving*. However, a noun or a passive infinitive would more probably be substituted:—*for final decision; to be given as prizes*.

Errors of another kind are sometimes found with gerunds. One of these is to use the wrong construction or preposition after a head-word and then make the gerund follow, e.g.:—

Error 195. They should go forward and *help giving* reality to the national ideal.

Error 196. The *tendency of converting* these savings into ornaments and jewels has become chronic.

In the first of the above, *help* with the gerund is wrong for, in that construction, *help* means 'to avoid' (I cannot *help saying* that I think you are wrong); the writer means *help to give*. In the second, *tendency* does not take *of* after it, but *to* and therefore the infinitive:—*The tendency to convert*, etc.

Examples of the contrary error, the use of a *to*-infinitive where the gerund would be correct, are not common, but here is one:—

Error 197. He *practised* assiduously *to live* up to the higher ideals of a spiritual life.

Here, of course, the writer should have known that the proper non-finite verb-object to a transitive head-verb (*practised*) is the gerund:—*He practised assiduously living up to*, etc.

Now and then, also, errors are made with the few head-words which do take *to* with the gerund, not with the *to*-infinitive:—

Error 198. If any section *objected to* the children of other sections *to go* to these schools.

Error 199. The Commissioner said he had no *objection to allow* the procession to proceed along the route.

Both the verb *object* and its noun *objection* are among the head-words which take *to* with the gerund, and the correct construction is:—*objected to the children . . . going; objection to allowing*.

#### IV. The Participles

§142. The two participles, the Present in *-ing* and the Past in *-ed*, *-en*, etc. may be used in three ways:—  
(1) attributively, (2) predicatively, (3) as free adjuncts.

(1) *Attributive participles* act as adjectives to nouns or pronouns. The present participle, when so used, may have either a transitive or an intransitive meaning:—

He told an *entertaining* tale (trans.).

The prudent worship the *rising*, not the *setting* sun (intrans.).

The attributive past participle has generally a passive sense:—

A *carved* table (i.e. *that has been carved*).

A well *thought out* plan.



but there are some that have an intransitive sense and are active in voice :—

A *well-read* man (i.e. one who *has read* well).

A *determined* woman. *Returned* travellers. *Fallen* trees.

## (2) *Predicative Participles.*

§143. Used with finite verbs to complete or extend their meaning, the participles not only fulfil important functions in making the progressive tenses with the present participle and *to be* :—

He *was rubbing* his eyes.

I *shall be sending* the book back soon.

the perfect tenses with the past participle and *to have*, and the passive with the same participle and *to be* :—

He *had intended* to go to the play but *was overtaken* with sleep.

but have other valuable uses and constructions.

§144. The present participle may extend the meaning of verbs of motion and rest (*to stand, sit, go, come*) :—

He *went running* down the street.

and complete the meaning of several other verbs not of full meaning by themselves (*to go on, keep on, stop, leave off, burst out, have done, be done*) :—

He *left off coming*.

The child *burst out crying*.

§145. Other verbs take *as* with the present participle, either directly :—

He *posed as bringing* salvation to his people.

or after an object (as with *to look on, view, regard, represent, treat, acknowledge, accept, choose, take, strike, hold*) :—

I do not *regard him as being* a friend.

§146. Important constructions with the participles are the following :—

(a) *The Accusative and Present Participle*

We saw him walking down the road.

I can feel it coming on now.

This construction is regular with verbs of 'seeing' and also *to hear* and *to feel* (with which the accusative is the real object of the verb). It is also found with *to have* (meaning 'to experience'), *find*, *know*, *set*, *like*, *want*, *fancy*, *imagine*, but with these the accusative is usually only the subject of the participle, not the real object of the verb :—

I won't *have* (or I don't *want*) the dog coming in and out at all times.

(b) *The Nominative and Present Participle*

This is the former construction turned into the passive and is only possible when the accusative of the accusative and present participle is the real object of the verb :—

*He was seen walking* down the road.

(c) *The Accusative and Past Participle*

With the same verbs as take the accusative and present participle another construction with the accusative and past participle can be used to express a passive state :—

I have never *seen that done* so well before.  
and this construction is very common after *to have* :—

Will you *have the coffee prepared* now or a little later?

(3) *Participles in Free Adjuncts*

§147. Participles may also be used in a subordinate phrase, and in this position can be either :—



(a) *Related* (to the main clause or to a word in it):—

The *major* entered the apartment *distributing* the most graceful bows to everyone present.

Sometimes the relation is shown by conjunctions (*when, while, as if, though, as though*):—

He put his hand in his pocket *as if searching* for a coin.

and, to express cause or reason, with *as* and a pronoun for the subject and *to do* or *to be* following the participle:—

This success, *coming as it does* after so many failures, delights us the more.

*Shot as he was* through both legs, the officer was unable to move.

(b) *Absolute* (i.e. having a subject of its own while still related with the main clause):—

He ran up the steps, *the dog following*.

or (c) *Unrelated*:—

*Starting* with next week, meetings will be held fortnightly instead of weekly.

*Talking* of elephants, have you read that story in Blackwood's Magazine?

The danger of the unrelated participle is, of course, that it may appear to be related to a word it has no connection with:—

He asked me to accompany him and, *putting* on his hat, we set out.

where *putting* appears to be related to *we* but is meant to be unrelated.

### *Errors with the Present Participle*

These are all due to confusion between the uses of the present participle and the *to*-infinitive.

Error 200. It does not *allow* persons after arrest *being beaten*.

*Allow* is a verb of 'willing' and must take the accusative and infinitive with *to*:—*allow persons . . . to be beaten*.

Error 201. The Brahmins can never *pose to possess* any real superiority over them.

Error 202. The appointment of a journalist does not *strike us to be* the wisest thing to do.

*Pose* and *strike* are verbs which, with *as*, take the present participle, not the *to*-infinitive:—*pose as possessing; strike us as being* etc.

Error 203. Anyone *discovered to import or circulate* any of these papers will be prosecuted.

This is an error with the Nominative and Present Participle construction:—*Anyone discovered importing or circulating*, etc.

## EXERCISES ON CHAPTER VII

### THE NON-FINITE VERB

Read again carefully the paragraphs given below, and correct errors in the sentences quoted with them:—

#### *Co-ordinated Plain Infinitive.*

§128.

1. We cannot do better than securing the help of these leaders.

2. Government cannot do worse than neglecting its obligations in such matters.

#### *Infinitive with to.*

§129.

1. I think truth as the first virtue.

2. It is a mistake to think wealth as the first necessary thing.

3. There is a great tendency for the intellect of the nation being unduly diverted to one channel only.



§ 131.

1. He never seemed to have been conscious of his greatness.

2. Victor Hugo was the first to have taken liberties with the established forms of French poetry.

*Gerund.*

§ 138. This advice deserves being noted.

*Infinitive and Gerund Compared.*

§§ 140-141.

1. The orthodox began to refuse sending their children to school.

2. He was sent to Peshawar by the Committee for announcing the commencement of the proceedings.

3. For attaining the object in view, the leaders should keep their plans carefully hidden.

4. He proceeded to Amreli for introducing compulsory education.

5. What is required is a spirit to do one's utmost for imparting education to villagers.

6. We only hope that the police have been doing their best in finding out the culprits.

7. The Conference sent a message to do their best in promoting the economic independence of the State.

8. King Edward uniformly used his influence for averting international conflict.

9. Ruskin's father made tours for collecting orders for sherry.

10. She left this message on the eve of her departure for residing in her country house.

11. Under the law the police had no right to assault the Satyagrahis and charging them with lathis.

12. Indians should not obstruct in any manner to raise a memorial to Clive.

13. The processionists lost no time to decide their plan of action.

14. We shall have done our duty to stem the tide of social evil.

*Infinitive and Participle.*

§§ 143-146.

1. The author of this book is described to be closely familiar with the Punjab.

2. He regards education to be at the root of every social and economic problem.

3. A neutral attitude does not strike one to be particularly heroic.

4. Agitation is regarded by the Government to be the necessary result of British rule.

TEST PAPERS 7—(THE NON-FINITE VERB)

7 A

(1) What do you understand by the Plain Infinitive? Give its main uses, with at least one sentence of your own in illustration of each use.

(2) Explain the difference, both in construction and in meaning, between the following pairs of sentences:—

- |   |   |
|---|---|
| { | You will have some time to look at it.                          |
|   | You will have to look at it some time.                          |
| { | A journalist has got to learn a good deal about his profession. |
|   | A journalist has got a good deal to learn about his profession. |

7 B

(3) After what kinds of verbs is the Infinitive with *to* used in English? Supply examples of sentences of your own in illustration.



(4) What is wrong with the following sentences :—

1. If he avoids to take legal steps he will suffer great loss.
2. We insist on every one who joins us to agree on this.
3. I have great pleasure to second the proposal.
4. The Government of Bombay have lost no time to grasp the local situation.

### 7 C

(5) What is the Gerund? Give examples of your own to illustrate its main uses in English.

(6) Give the main differences in use between the Infinitive with *to* and the Gerund. In illustration of these differences correct any errors in the following sentences :—

1. He explained the purpose of the conference, with a view to secure the co-operation of merchants.
2. There was a proposal made for inviting half a dozen editors.
3. We must arrange mass meetings for giving expression to the views of the people.
4. The Government should be given sufficient legislative power for preventing fraud.
5. We can give names for illustrating our statement.
6. In the alleged conspiracy case the accused had applied for being taken to Dacca.
7. Both Hindus and Mohammedans joined together for making a petition to Government.
8. He called the ministers to the palace for further discussing the plan.
9. The speaker thanked Dr. R. for the great trouble she had taken for organizing that gathering.
10. The whole province will feel proud to do its best for raising a suitable memorial.
11. There is no law to compel such information being given.
12. Tennyson urges divine help for granting him an ultimate hope of Immortality.

13. Suppose a boy goes for asking help of such a person, he never gets it.

## 7 D

(7) What part of the verb is each of the forms in *-ing* in the following? Are any of the clauses out of proper order?

'A number of girls at Ahmedabad starting picketing foreign cloth shops wearing the *kirpan* (Sikh sword) and informed the police that they were doing this in order to be able to kill themselves when there was danger of their being interfered with.'



## CHAPTER VIII

## VERBS

C. *Auxiliaries*

§148. Auxiliaries are either verbs which are deprived of all their independent meaning in order to serve a grammatical function, as when *to have* is used to form the perfect and pluperfect tenses or *to be* the passive voice of other verbs, or else they are verbs which have a meaning dependent on their use, as when *shall* is used to express necessity or *can* is used to express possibility.

§149. The verbs used as auxiliaries in English are:—*to be*, *can* and *could*, *to dare*, *to do*, *to have*, *may* and *might*, *must*, *need*, *ought*, *shall* and *should*, *will* and *would*. Of these *to be*, *can* and *could*, *to dare*, *to do*, *might*, *need*, *shall* and *should*, *will* and *would* present special difficulties to Indian students, and their uses alone are here considered.

*Repetition of Auxiliaries*

• §150. First, however, must be considered the circumstance that an auxiliary may, under certain conditions, be used by itself. It is then actually a repetition of the auxiliary used in a previous (or following) statement along with the main verb. This separate use of the auxiliary is found in (a) Questions and Answers, (b) Alternatives.

§151. (a) *Questions and Answers.*

- (1) *He must come, mustn't he?*  
*He mustn't come, must he?*

(2) *He must come, must he?*

*He mustn't come, mustn't he?*

A. (speaking) *He mustn't come.* B. (replying) *Mustn't he?*

(3) A. (speaking) *Has your father returned yet?*

B. (replying) *No, he hasn't.*

In (1) and (2) above, one speaker puts a question in the form of a statement followed by a repetition of the auxiliary already used and a pronoun in question order. In (1) he expects a favourable answer (*He must come*. Answer: *Of course, he must*); if his statement is positive, his question is made negative, and *vice versa*. In (2) he wants only to show his interest, friendly or ironical, in the hearer's attitude (*He must come . . . You think that?*) in this case, both statement and appended question are either in the positive or the negative. This form of question may be a reply by a second person to a first person's statement. In (3) is presented the common type of question and answer, in which the auxiliary and subject (or pronoun) in the question must be repeated in the answer.

§152. (b) *Alternatives*.

(1) *He may or may not come.*

(2) *He may come or may not.*

Here the speaker wishes to state both a positive and a negative possibility. He repeats the auxiliary, putting the positive always first and adding the main verb to either positive or negative auxiliary, generally to the positive.

### *Errors in the Repetition of Auxiliaries*

(a) *Questions and Answers*.

The usual mistake with questions inviting or suggesting agreement is to translate the vernacular equivalent (e.g. Marathi: *nahi kay?*) and say *Isn't it?* or *Is it?* instead of



using again the auxiliary found in the main statement and a pronoun referring to the subject, as is the English practice.

Error 204. You are going home now, *isn't it*?

Error 205. He is a student of our college, *isn't it*?

In the above questions inviting agreement, the *you are* and the *he is* of the main statements should have been repeated in the questions appended, of course in the negative:—*aren't you? isn't he?*

Error 206. A. (speaking) I want a room in the hostel.

B. (replying) Is it?

Again, B., interested in A.'s statement, should have picked up the auxiliary *do*, implied in *I want* (shown in the negative *I do not want*), and added the pronoun appropriate to A.:—*Do you?*

Error 207. Are they able to command such support?

We are sure not.

Here the speaker is interested in his own (rhetorical) question. In his answer to it, he should have picked up both subject and auxiliary from the question and replied:—We are sure *they are* not.

(b) *Alternatives.*

The usual error here is to omit repetition of the previous auxiliary. For instance, in:—

Error 208. The Bill *may pass or not* into law, but it has served to open the eyes of the public.

the *may* of the positive alternative should have been repeated in the negative:—*may pass or may not.*

### *To Be*

§153. Apart from the two great uses of *to be* as an auxiliary, viz., to form the progressive tenses of a verb with its present participle (He *is coming*) and, with its past participle, the passive voice (The enemy *are defeated*), there is a very valuable use of *to be* with an infinitive with *to*. This construction carries three possible meanings:—(a) Arrangement; (b) Command

by a second person not to be disputed with, or a weaker Obligation; (c) Ability in a state of uncertainty.

Examples are the following :—

(a) I have telephoned, and the car *is to be* here in ten minutes.

Next year, when he leaves school, he *is to enter* one of the Bombay colleges.

Early measures must be taken if he *is not to be ruined*.

(In the last example the idea of arrangement is weak, and the parties to it cannot be mentioned.)

(b) You *are to take* this letter and *bring back* an answer.

'Candidates *are to write* on one side of the paper only.'

I cannot decide whether he *is to be trusted* or not.  
(General Obligation.)

(c) How *am I to decide* which of them is speaking the truth?

The idea of obligation in the last example of (b) could be expressed as well by *should* or *ought* (*whether he should or ought to be trusted*), and of ability in (c) by *can* (*How can I decide?*).

Errors with *to be* are examined, at the end of the chapter, under the heading Desirability.

### *Can, Could*

§154. *Can* and its preterite *could* express mainly two ideas. The first of these is Ability or Fitness :—

He *can* do it very well if he wants to. (Ability.)

He *could* be very amusing at times. (Natural ability.)

Ability combined with determination is expressed by *could* in a modal sense—especially with reference to past time :—

I *could* have done it any time I liked.



§155. The second idea is Possibility due to circumstances, since circumstances to some extent control ability :—

*Can* we hope for any result from these efforts?  
You *could* scarcely expect him to do that.

In this sense the meaning of *can* may be so reduced that it is equivalent to *may*, the usual auxiliary of possibility :—

What he is offering you *can* (or *may*) be had for nothing.

§156. In interrogative sentences only, strongly stressed *can* (and *could* in indirect speech) may express Impatience, Curiosity, or Surprise :—

What *can* he be doing away from home as late as this?

Here's Sam back from school. What *can* he have done to his face?

#### *Errors under Can, Could*

Most of these errors come under the heading of Possibility at the end of the chapter. Here, however, is one on the expression of Curiosity :—

Error 209. This is a clever book ! Who possibly *must* be the writer?

Evidently, this requires—with also some alteration of word-order—*Who can the writer possibly be?*

#### *To Dare*

§157. *To dare* can be used as either a main verb, when it carries one of the meanings 'to venture' (upon something) or 'to defy' (someone) :—

An explorer *dares* many dangers.

I *dared* him to deny what I said.

or it can be used as an auxiliary with a weakened sense of venturing.

§158. As an auxiliary, *to dare* takes either the infinitive with *to* or the plain infinitive, but its forms vary according to the kind of infinitive following: a plain infinitive goes with *dare*, *dare not*, *dared not*, generally in negative or interrogative sentences:—

*Dare he try? He dare not (try). He dared not try.*  
an infinitive with *to* takes *dares*, *does not dare*, *did not dare*:—

*If he dares to try. If he does not dare to try. He dared to try. He did not dare to try.*

§159. *Dare to say—Dare say.*

These are both possible constructions, but *dare to say* emphasizes the *dare*, which means 'to venture', while *dare say* is unemphatic and weakens its meaning, which then becomes 'inclined to think', 'not deny':—

*I dare to say that A. is as good as B.* means 'I am convinced and venture to say that A. is as good as B.'

*I dare say that A. is as good as B.* means 'I do not deny (accept it as possible) that A. is as good as B.'

#### *Error with To dare*

Errors with this verb are confined to the difference between *dare say* and *dare to say*.

Error 210. *I dare say* that Dhed pupils bid fair to compete with the children of the upper classes.

Here the writer means to express an emphatic opinion, and the construction should be:—*I dare to say that . . .*

#### *To Do*

§160. Besides its use as the auxiliary to form the Emphatic Mood (*Do sit down and tell us all about it!*), *to do* has two very important uses:

(1) to act as an auxiliary

(a) in negative sentences, to help form a tense:—

*He did not know what to say.*



(Note here that the negative must qualify the verb itself. When it qualifies another word in the sentence, *do* is not used:—He loves *not others* but himself.)

(b) in sentences in which the subject must follow the verb, viz. :—

(i) Interrogative sentences :—

*Did he ask you what had happened?*

(ii) Sentences beginning with a negative adverb :—

*Scarcely ever did I hear evil spoken of him.*

In neither of these kinds of sentences can *to do* be used with *have*, *can*, *may*, *must*, *ought*, *shall*, *will* when these are used as auxiliaries, nor with *have* when it is a verb of full meaning expressing permanent possession (*Hasn't he a handsome face?*)

§161. (2) To act as a substitute for a verb which has just been used, so as to avoid repetition of that verb. When so used, *to do* takes the voice and generally the tense of the verb which it replaces :—

*We liked the play, but he didn't.*

*He doesn't neglect poor patients, as some do.*

Here, again, *to do* cannot be used as a substitute for any of the verbs—*be*, *can*, *may*, etc.,—with which it cannot be used as an auxiliary.

### *Errors with To Do*

(1) *As an auxiliary.*

Error 211. Whose moneys *they exploited* for their trade purposes?

This error of omitting *do* as the auxiliary in questions is due to mental translation from the Indian languages, which in questions have no such auxiliary nor even inversion of subject and verb but show the question with an interrogative particle (*kay? ke?*). English requires, however,

both this inversion and the appropriate tense of *to do*:—  
*Whose moneys did they exploit, etc.?*

Error 212. *Why not the rest co-operate and work?*

This kind of error is probably due to misunderstanding such a phrase as *Why not take it?* But, in *Why not take it?*, the *take* is a plain infinitive with no subject, and no auxiliary *do* is required. But, with a subject (e.g. *the rest*), the verb is a tense-form and does require the auxiliary:—  
*Why do not the rest co-operate . . . ?*

(2) *As a verb-substitute.*

Error 213. A money grant does not seem to us an appropriate thing *to do*.

When *to do* is used as a verb-substitute, it must stand for a verb. For what verb does it stand above? Obviously not for *seem*, and there is no other verb. Therefore, omit it:—*does not seem to us* an appropriate thing. [The phrase *thing to do* is very common and has probably caused this error, but *to do* in that phrase always stands for a preceding verb, e.g. :—*To take an unfair advantage is not a right thing to do*, where *to do* stands for *to take*. Note that the preceding verb may itself be represented by a pronoun (e.g. *that*): *That* (i.e. to act in that way) *is not a proper thing to do.*]

Error 214. If the basis of the reform scheme should be accepted as sound, which most of these critics *do . . . .*

*Do*, which is active in voice, cannot stand for the passive *should be accepted*. Use, instead, a passive construction with *to do*:—*as is done by most of these critics.*

Error 215. Their leaders are always enthusiastic for the Government, as it pays them well *to do so*.

Here *to do* is made to replace *are*, which is one of the verbs it cannot replace. Repeat the original verb in the proper tense and person:—*as it pays them well to be so.*



## To Have

§162. *To have* has several valuable uses as an auxiliary, e.g. :—

(i) with a past participle, to form perfect and pluperfect tenses :—

*Have you finished breakfast? I hadn't heard it was ready till you called.*

(ii) with an accusative and either a plain infinitive or a past participle or a present participle, to express either 'to get' or 'to experience' :—

*I have had the carpenter prepare a box for me ('get').*

*I have had a box prepared for me ('get').*

*I have never had such a thing happen to me before ('experience').*

*I won't have that dog running in and out of the house ('experience').*

§163. More important for our purposes are two other constructions :—

(1) With an infinitive with *to* to express a duty or necessity imposed by circumstances :—

*I have to be there at half past eight.*

*You have to send several letters off to-night.*

(2) With an object qualified by an infinitive with *to*, expressing 'to possess' :—

*You must have a substitute to act for you.*

Generally these two constructions mean something quite different from each other, as the following sentence shows :—

*If you have to use force, it is as well to have force to use.*

but, when the infinitive expresses arrangement or necessity, the difference may narrow down till it

disappears; i.e., the two following sentences mean the same thing:—

I have *had to make my own way* in the world.  
I have *had my own way to make* in the world.

### Errors with To Have

Most errors with *to have* are made when it expresses necessity and is then confused with other auxiliaries expressing necessity or obligation; these are considered at the end of the chapter under Necessity.

Apart from this, the two constructions with the infinitive with *to* are sometimes confused, e.g.:—

Error 216. Bombay *has to boast* of a fine collection of birds.

This means that Bombay is obliged by circumstances to boast of the collection, which is absurd. The other construction, expressing possession of the collection, is required:—*Bombay has a fine collection of birds to boast of.*

### May, Might

§164. The chief use of the present tense *may* is to express Possibility, though only in affirmative sentences:—

He *may* return to-morrow or the next day.

Permission (Boys who have finished *may* go), Uncertainty (He *may* succeed if he tries hard enough), and, in literary English, a Wish (*May* he defend our laws!) are other uses well enough known.

§165. The preterite tense *might* is used in main clauses only in a modal sense, expressing, not past time, but the attitude of the speaker. This attitude may express one of two things:—

(1) Great uncertainty:—

A. Will he be angry, do you think?

B. Well, I don't know, but he *might*.



(2) What is reasonable :—

You *might* at least consider before you act.

### *Errors with May, Might*

The chief error with these is to use *might* for plain possibility, where *may* is right. It must be remembered that *might*, in main clauses, does not express mere possibility but the speaker's attitude of mind emphasizing a possibility. This modal sense of *might* in main clauses is not generally understood.

Error 217. Those of you who *might* have studied the history of Greece know how they put ethics in the forefront of all the sciences.

Here no attitude of mind towards the study is in question, but the plain possibility of such study, hence :—*who may have studied*, etc.

Error 218. If any act is done by the tribes, it *might* be on their own account, for reasons best known to them only.

Here, again, the mood of the speaker is not in question. Either plain possibility is meant (it *may* be on their own account), or else an inferred or presumed certainty (it *must* be on their own account).

### *Must*

§ 166. *Must* expresses mainly two things :—

(1) Necessity, imposed either by the will of another person :—

You *must* finish this by four o'clock.

or by circumstances :—

We *must* have tickets to get in.

(2) Certainty of a fact, either inferred or presumed :—

There *must* be some way out of this difficulty.

He *must* have known, if anyone did.

*Must* can also express annoyance in the mind of the speaker, especially when followed by a progressive infinitive :—

You *must be* for ever asking needless questions !

### *Errors with Must*

There ought to be no mistakes with *must*, which so clearly is bound up with necessity and has only the one modal sense of annoyance. Yet it is found being used wrongly to express other feelings; one example, expressing curiosity, has been shown under *can*; others will be shown under *should*, *will* and Possibility.

### *Need*

§167. *Need* can be used as either a verb of full meaning ('to require, to be required') or as an auxiliary (meaning 'to be under a necessity or obligation to' with an active infinitive, 'to require' with a passive infinitive). It has also two forms for the 3rd Person Present and the whole Preterite, viz.,—*needs* and *needed*, or *need* and *need*. The main difficulty is with the use of these forms.

§168. *Needs* and *needed* are used exclusively when the verb has full meaning. The verb then takes only a noun or pronoun as object and takes *to do* as its auxiliary :—

He *needs* (or *needed*) *help* (or *no help*).

*Does* (or *did*) he *need* help? No, he *doesn't* (or *didn't*).

*Needs* and *needed* are also used when the verb is an auxiliary, exclusively in positive statements. It takes the infinitive with *to* :—

He *needs* (or *needed*) *to be told*.

*Does* he *need to be told*?



§169. The other form, *need*, is only used as an auxiliary and then only in negative statements and in questions. It carries the plain infinitive:—

*Need he be told?*

We agreed that he *need not be told* (Preterite).

#### *Errors with Need*

Mistakes here are made with the two forms of the verb.

Error 219. It *need* no proof.

The verb is here of full meaning with a noun-object. Only *needs* is possible.

Error 220. The working of the Act will be left to local Committees, and it *needs scarcely be said* . . . .

Here the verb is an auxiliary in a negative clause (*scarcely*). Either form can be used, with the appropriate infinitive (but not *needs* with the plain infinitive *be said*):—it *need scarcely be said* . . . ; it *needs scarcely to be said* . . .

#### *Ought*

§170. *Ought* has only a Modal sense, expressing first of all Moral Obligation:—

We promised to help them, and we *ought to*.

It may cover also what is Proper, Natural or Reasonable:—

That *ought* not to cost you more than ten rupees.  
and be weakened to express what is Probable only:—

These students look strong and healthy. There *ought* to be some fine athletes among them.

The senses of *ought* exclude personal feeling; they suggest a demand made by the moral law or the fitness of things.

#### *Errors with Ought*

Mistakes with *ought* are due to confusing the moral obligation it carries with obligation due to personal wishes

(*should*) or with necessity due to circumstances (*have to*). These are examined under *should* and Necessity.

### *Shall, Should*

§171. The main use of *shall, should* is to express future time with a plain infinitive, but only in the 1st person (*I shall, we shall*). The 2nd and 3rd persons are served by *will, would*.

§172. *Shall*, in positive statements, is used in the 2nd and 3rd persons with a strong stress to express a Command:—

You *shall* find it, even if you have to search the whole day.

with less stress to express a Promise, Warning or Threat:—

If you want it as badly as that, you *shall* have it (Promise).

In questions, *shall* in all three persons enquires the Will of the person spoken to:—

There's a beggar at the door. *Shall you or I* give him something, or *shall he* be sent away?

§173. *Should*, in main clauses, is used modally. It expresses either the speaker's opinion that an Obligation or Duty exists:—

You *should* do it, if you can.

or the Will or Promise of the speaker:—

You *should* have my vote, but I have already promised it.

or the Likelihood of an event:—

There *should* be a great crowd at the match, with this fine weather.



§174. In subordinate clauses, both *shall* and *should* have two important uses:—

(1) after verbs of 'willing' and sometimes 'wishing', to express a Future Uncertainty (i.e. after *to determine, propose, demand, require, decide, settle, suggest, permit*; also after adjectives such as *anxious, desirous, wishful*, etc.):—

I *suggest* (or *am anxious*) that you *should* ask Mr Y. about it.

(2) in clauses after verbs expressing personal feeling or opinion and after impersonal expressions of the same kind (i.e. after *to rejoice, grieve, be sorry, wonder, be surprised, complain*; *it is likely, possible, probable, right, necessary, strange, funny, fortunate, a blessing, a fact*, etc.):—

I *wonder* that you *should* have taken any notice of him.

*It is queer* that this letter *should* arrive just now.

### Errors with Shall, Should

Most errors with *shall, should* are made through confusing their uses with those of *will, would*. Since these uses are many and complicated, it is fortunate that the usage for the future tenses—which is comparatively simple—is the one mainly required here. Apart from this, the exact sense of *should* is ill-understood; errors regarding it are to be found under Obligation, Arrangement and Desirability at the end of the chapter.

### FUTURE TENSES

ERROR 221. That was an agitation for which there *should* have been no occasion if Lord C. had not been Viceroy.

The subject of this future perfect verb *should have been*

is *there*, which is in the 3rd person; therefore, *would have been* is required.

Error 222. The abolition of the declaration in question *shall* obviate this difficulty.

Error 223. We hope that the Government *shall* submit a strong representation.

Both the above are clear cases of the expression of future time, and the 3rd person subjects (*abolition, Government*) both require *will*.

### PRESUMED NEED

Error 224. Now the Government would not purchase for the fun of the thing; they *should* have felt the need of it.

The correct auxiliary to express inferred or presumed need is not *should* but *must*:—*they must have felt*, etc.

### *Will, Would*

§175. The commonest use of *will, would* is to form the second and third persons of the future tenses. Besides this there are four other uses of both *will* and *would* and two of *would* by itself:—

*Will* and *would* express:—

(1) Determination on the part of the subject of the sentence, in all three persons; this determination is shown by a strong stress, in speaking, on the *will, would*:—

I *will* not stand this any longer!

He *would* do it; I couldn't stop him.

A weaker stress suggests Intention:—

I *will* send you some more books on the subject to-morrow.

(2) General or Repeated Practice. Here *would*, in contrast with *used*, suggests personal interest on.



the part of the speaker and no contrast with the present time :—

He has queer moods. He *will* work furiously for a month at a stretch, and then again he *will* do nothing for weeks.

(3) Unlikely Fulfilment of a Wish, in subordinate clauses after to *wish*, *would* :—

I *wish* that boy *would* wash his face occasionally !

(4) 'To want', 'to desire' :—

Formerly they were so friendly, but now they *will* have nothing to do with him.

§176. *Would* alone is used in a modal sense, especially, with *to like* and verbs expressing desire :—

I *would* very much *like* to read more of his books. and it reports *will* in indirect speech ; after a verb in the past time :—

I *told* him he *would* soon get tired of that amusement.

### *Errors with Will, Would*

#### FUTURE TENSES

It is a common error to use *will* for the first person of a pure future tense :—

Error 225. I crave leave to say one or two words which I hope I *will* be pardoned for saying.

Here I *will* should, of course, be I *shall*.

#### *Would*

Almost as common an error is to use *would*, the preterite, for a plain future for all persons. This seems to show that the modal nature of *would* is not understood, i.e. that, as a simple future tense-word, it expresses, especially with *like* and verbs of desire, an attitude of mind of the subject.

Error 226. Without them we *would* never be able to do any solid good.

Error 227. Bombay in 1950 *would* be one of the leading cities of the world.

Error 228. A great personality has passed away with the death of Mr. A. The news *would* be received with profound regret.

There is no modality meant in any of the above, but only a plain future. Hence, in the first, *would* should be replaced by *shall*, in the 2nd and 3rd errors by *will*.

Error 229. It *will* be useless or futile to attempt to make the wave or the star a uniform thing.

Here the speaker's attitude of mind is being expressed, hence *would* is necessary in place of *will*.

*Would* is also sometimes wrongly used for *should*, as the following examples will show:—

Error 230. It was decided that each member of the Conference present *would* get his Association to furnish the particulars within a week.

*Decide* is a verb of 'willing', after which *shall*, *should* must be used in a subordinate clause. Here, after the past *was decided*, the past *should get* is required.

Error 231. If Marathas were willing to intermarry with the castes below them, why *would* they care for Vedic rights?

This is a case of a rhetorical question, for which *should* is always used, not *would*, even in the 3rd person.

Error 232. What fun it would be if our hostess *would* announce . . . .

In adverb clauses expressing a condition which must first be fulfilled, *should* is used, not *would*, also in the 3rd person.

### *Main Purposes of Auxiliaries*

§177. Many students so mix the auxiliaries with each other, apparently not knowing which to use, that it seems desirable to give four of the main purposes which auxiliaries are intended to fulfil and to arrange and distinguish auxiliaries under each of these purposes.



The purposes chosen for illustration are:—‘Will’ and Desirability, Possibility, Necessity, Obligation.

### ‘WILL’ AND DESIRABILITY.

§178. When a future is to be expressed as uncertain after a verb of ‘will’, or when, in a subordinate clause, something is to be described as desirable or likely, then *shall*, *should* are the only possible auxiliaries.

Error 233. The occasion *demanded* that something more than mere sentiments *were* given.

Error 234. The Government are naturally *anxious* that the benefit *is* widespread, and *reaches* those for whom it is intended.

Error 235. What *must* have been left to a private individual was magnified into a State prosecution.

Error 236. It is *desirable* that action *must* be taken.

Error 237. It is absolutely *necessary* that the Senate of the University *took* care that young men are well looked after.

The first two errors among the above speak of an uncertain future after *demanded* and *anxious*, a verb and an adjective expressing ‘will’ or ‘wish’. In the subordinate clauses, therefore, the auxiliaries should not be *were* and *is* but *should be*, i.e.—*should be given*, *should be widespread*. In the last three errors, the speaker is expressing a personal opinion of the desirability of something, either directly in a main statement or in a sub-clause after *desirable*, *necessary*; here, again, *should* is the correct auxiliary:—What *should* have been left, etc.; It is desirable that action *should* be taken; It is absolutely *necessary* that the Senate *should* take care, etc. Note that *necessary* is here an expression of opinion, not a fact; it means what is very desirable in the opinion of the speaker.

### POSSIBILITY.

§179. Here we must distinguish between the expression of possibility in both main and subordinate

clauses on the one hand, and in subordinate clauses only, on the other.

(a) *In Main or Subordinate Clauses*

The possible auxiliaries here are *can*, *could* and *may*, *might*. These are distinguished from each other in use in the following way :—

*Can* expresses first ability in the face of circumstances. If the circumstances are difficult, the ability may be weakened to a possibility. So *can* may express possibility due to circumstances (see §155) and its use suggests difficult attendant circumstances, even if they are not expressed :—

What *can* be expected of such a man?

*Could* expresses the same kind of possibility, but is more modal than *can*, i.e., it emphasizes an attitude of mind in the speaker :—

I *could* do it if I wanted to.

Error 238. The partners in Madras must have known the fate of their remittances from India. It is difficult to say what exactly they *must* have done under the circumstances.

This is a question of possibility, and the phrase *under the circumstances*—if nothing else—should have warned the writer to use *could*, not *must*.

*May* expresses the most general possibility, but only in affirmative sentences :—

He *may* be there, but I haven't seen him.

*Might*, in main clauses, is entirely modal, emphasizing doubt in the speaker's mind :—

He *might* be there, but I don't think so.

§180. (b) *In Subordinate Clauses only.*

*Shall* and *should* express possibility in subordinate clauses under either of two conditions :—

(i) when the uncertainty of a future event or



state is to be suggested, especially after verbs of 'wishing' (and some other verbs) and in adverb clauses of time (311);

(ii) when the main clause has a verb expressing personal feeling or opinion (312).

Error 239. It may be remembered that Gandhiji and his band took a vow not to return to the Ashram before Swaraj *could* be gained.

Under (i) above, this contains an adverbial clause of time—before, etc.—suggesting uncertainty of a future event. Therefore the sub-clause should run:—*before Swaraj should be gained*.

Error 240. I wish rather that secondary education *must* be so devised that it can give more effective aid. . . .

Here we have, under (i) above, a main verb *wish* followed by a sub-clause expressing an uncertain state in the future, which should therefore run:—that secondary education *should* be so devised . . . .

Error 241. An informal meeting will be held to consider what effective steps *could* be taken to check the present depression.

*To consider*, in the main clause, is one of the 'other verbs' besides those of wishing and here it takes a sub-clause expressing an uncertain future event. This clause needs, therefore, to be:—what effective steps *should* be taken, etc.

## NECESSITY.

§181. The verbs expressing various kinds of necessity are *be*, *have*, and *must*.

*Be* followed by an infinitive with *to* expresses a kind of necessity, viz., an indisputable command from another person:—

Father says you *are to take* this letter at once.

*Have* followed by an infinitive with *to* expresses a necessity imposed by circumstance, usually impersonal

(288). It also acts to form future tenses of *must*, since *must* has no future of its own :—

*I have to work* ten hours a day to get through.

*You will have to go* without me; I'm not ready.

*Must* is the verb expressing the most general necessity; it covers both a necessity imposed by the will of a person and one imposed by circumstances, therefore largely covers the uses of both *be* and *have*. It does not, however, express habitual or long continued necessity; this is expressed by *Have to*, as in the first example given under *have* above.

Error 242. This is a very good idea and will save much money at the present moment, which *ought* otherwise to be spent if a new college is to be opened.

This intends to say that the opening of a new college would necessitate spending much money. But this is a necessity due to circumstances, not a moral or social obligation (*ought*), and the proper auxiliary is *have to* in the proper tense, the conditional:—*which would otherwise have to be spent*, etc.

Error 243. Brother and sister may live together for years, and may yet really never know each other's heart. How much more difficult *would* it be for men of different races and opposite political prejudices to know each other?

Here we have to do with an inference considered as necessary or certain. This is expressed only by *must*:—*How much more difficult must it be*, etc.

#### OBLIGATION.

§182. *Ought* and *should* are the two auxiliaries expressing obligation. They both express an obligation modally, i.e., as felt by the speaker. The difference between them is one of quality. If the obligation is felt to be very binding and strong, then *ought* is used; if not so strong, then *should*.



Moral obligations are generally felt to be strong and are therefore usually expressed by *ought*:—

A man *ought* to act according to the dictates of his conscience.

A social obligation may be felt as strong (as by B. in the following conversation) and is then expressed by *ought*, or as not so strong (as by A.) and then *should* is enough:—

A. I *should* reply to C.'s letter, but I don't feel like it.

B. You certainly *ought* to. It came over a week ago.

Error 244. If there is any difference, the people of the country should have a preferential claim and Europeans *are to* be appointed only in case of necessity.

The clause *and Europeans are to*, etc. is a main clause, so that *are to* sounds here like a command of the speaker which the Government must not dispute, which was certainly not meant. He means an obligation of the Government, which, if stressed, would be *ought to be appointed*. If the speaker is moderate in his demand, then *should be appointed* would be correct.

## EXERCISES ON CHAPTER VIII

### AUXILIARY VERBS

(1) §§160-161. *To do*.

In the following sentence *why not* is correctly used with *to do*:—

'If you want to write to him, *why not do so*?'

Explain the use of *do* here, and explain then what is wrong with the following sentences:—

1. Why not the Hindu Association canvass and find out how many of its members are for following this wholesome principle?

2. The suggestion is advisable, and why not the Government try it?

3. Why not men like Sir P. M. and Mr W. proceed on a pilgrimage to the British Parliament?
4. Now we feel a necessity to change, why not we do so?
5. Why not you train your sons in pious and devotional ways?
6. Why not India rise like Japan?

(2)

§171. *Shall, should.*

§175. *Will, would.*

Correct the use of *shall, should, will* and *would* in the following sentences:—

1. You have long talked of it, you say, but when shall the time come for you to work it out?
2. The only question is whether he shall face it like a man.
3. We will see how the idea of a new religion led to its foundation.
4. I would be giving a one-sided account if I were to omit to refer to the part played by the young people.
5. If he has no money he shall have to live a poor life.
6. We will not be surprised to hear that the tax has been increased.
7. This is an example such as shall certainly not be surpassed.
8. We would have gained nothing by his resignation.

(3) Explain what is wrong with the uses of the italicised words in the following sentences, and correct them:—

1. There was not the slightest reason for dispersing the conference and I *dare say* it was a very great political blunder.
2. Why *need* so great a man titles?



VERBS  
TEST PAPERS 8—(AUXILIARY VERBS)

8 A

(1) Under what conditions is an auxiliary used instead of the main verb in English? Give an illustration of your own to each condition.

(2) What is the proper auxiliary to use alone instead of a preceding verb? Correct any errors of this kind in the following sentences:—

1. He told you I wasn't coming, isn't it?
2. So long as I have a brother, what do I care whether I possess or not a son and heir?
3. Either a gold currency can be circulated or not; if not, it is idle to discuss the matter.

8 B

(3) What meanings are borne by the construction of *to be* with an infinitive with *to*? Supply a sentence of your own to illustrate each meaning, and correct the following two sentences:—

1. If we *should* succeed in our mission of reforming society, we cannot set members too high a standard.
2. If primary education *should* really benefit the masses, the foundation must be laid in the model village school.

(4) Give the main uses of *to do*, and set right any error or omission in such uses in the following sentences:—

1. Now, what we call talking?
2. Were the members armed with pistols? And they all proclaimed a crusade against anybody?
3. A liberal infusion of the native element in the government of a country is the most natural thing to do.
4. The Government forced indigo planting, and those who did not or objected were punished.
5. How this inspiration takes place?

6. Nor would India, by any stretch of language, be said to have been held by one ruler as it has been done for over two centuries.

7. It is not right that one should be punished for a deed he did not do. But society does.

8. 'I never knew a human being who could make a man feel quite as big a fool as you', he protested, laughing.

### 8 C

(5) Detail the uses of *might*, with examples of your own. Correct any wrong use of *might* in the following two sentences:—

1. What little work we might have done till now can only cause us dissatisfaction.

2. The recovery in income during the past year might have been due to the increasing production from plantations.

(6) Set right, and explain, errors in the use of *shall*, *will* and *would* in the following groups of errors:—

(a) 1. He does not assume that the nations of the East shall all rise or fall together.

2. Unable to pay the oppressive tax, the people shall fly from village and town.

3. To do better, however, they shall have to rise superior to petty considerations of self.

(b) 1. The more we correct our defects, the more we will advance our cause.

2. Till we have the full text of the report, we will not be in a position to know.

3. When I will not hear the wind blowing, when I will never see the summer flowers growing, and when I will never see the winter snows.

(c) 1. Otherwise we would not have been enduring the present difficulties now.

2. This is what we would call the aggressive form of politics.

3. I have not been able to dwell on this need at as much length as I would have wished.



(d) 1. Mr. B. did yeoman service as an interpreter between England and India, and the regret occasioned by his loss would be keen on both sides.

2. By studying the constitution of the Khulai Khidmatgars, it would be found that the movement is exactly the same as that of the Boy Scouts.

3. A vicious man would always hate the good.

### 8 D

(7) Name the special uses of *should* which are not shared by *shall*. Correct errors in these uses in the following sentences :—

1. It is necessary that he must have a good character as well as position in order to be fit for this office.

2. It is proper that every nation must advance.

3. It is contended that the report must be published as early as possible.

(8) Correct any mistakes in the uses of auxiliaries in the following sentences, explaining each correction you make :—

1. Men's characters do not depend on inborn qualities. Circumstances are to form them.

2. He must not have been so impetuous, if he was to succeed.

3. The cost of stone architecture is great because the stones are to be paid for.

4. In choosing a profession we are to see what is most suitable for us.

## CHAPTER IX

### ADVERBS

#### ADVERBS, PREPOSITIONS AND CONJUNCTIONS.

§183. Two men, A and B, are talking together:—

A. Have you seen him *since*?

B. *Since* when?

A. *Since* he returned to India.

In each of these speeches the word *since* has occurred, but in each speech it is used differently.

In A's first speech *since* stands alone, though in relation with the verb *seen*, and gives the time of seeing. *Since* is, therefore, used as an Adverb in this sentence.

In B's speech *since* is made to govern the word *when* (an adverb) and is, therefore, used as a Preposition.

In A's second speech *since* introduces the adverbial clause *he returned to India*, and is, therefore, used as a Conjunction.

We see, then, that *since* can be used as either adverb, preposition or conjunction without change of form. So also can *after* and *before* be used as all three parts of speech.

In the chapter on Prepositions we shall see that the words which make the commonest prepositions—*above, about, against, at; beneath, beside, by; for, from; in; near; of, off, on, over; to, toward; under, underneath, up; with*—are also used as adverbs.

Further, in the chapter on Conjunctions, it will be found that some other words—*directly, now, once*—



can be used as both adverbs and conjunctions, and that other words can be used as both prepositions and conjunctions, viz., *as*, *but*, *except*, *than* and *till*, and also, in dialectal or careless speech, *against*, *except*, and *without*.

It is thus clear that, unlike other parts of speech, adverbs, prepositions and conjunctions are not recognizable by their form (nouns are recognizable by a genitive form in 's; some pronouns by accusative and genitive forms, e.g., *him*, *his*; verbs by tense-forms, *come*, *comes*, *came*) but by their function, viz., whether they qualify verbs, etc., (as adverbs) or govern other words (as prepositions) or introduce clauses (as conjunctions).

#### DEFINITION OF AN ADVERB.

§184. In the above sentence *Have you seen C since?* we have noticed the adverb *since* qualifying the verb *seen*. An adverb functions, however, by qualifying other parts of speech also besides verbs. For example, in the sentences:—

Your cousin is a *very* tall man.

He arrived *very* late.

He was *quite* a father to me.

the adverb *very* qualifies the adjective *tall* and the adverb *late*, and the adverb *quite* qualifies the article and noun *a father*.

An adverb, then, may be defined as a word used in the function of qualifying a verb, an adjective, another adverb, or, in some cases, a noun (normally when the noun is used semi-adjectivally or as the complement of a verb of incomplete meaning, e.g.:—*It's only Tom*; *Is that really your picture?* Such a man is *merely a parasite*.)

## KINDS OF ADVERBS.

§185. Adverbs are usually divided into classes according to the meaning of the adverb or according to its function in the making of a sentence. Nos. 1-4 of the following classes answer to the meaning of the words named there as adverbs, Nos. 5-8 to the adverbial use of the words there given. This signifies that some words are used as adverbs more for their meaning, others more for the part which they play in sentence-making.

- (1) Adverbs of Place:—*here, there, behind, around, up, away, above, off, etc.*
- (2) Adverbs of Time:—*now, then, before, after, late, early, seldom, often, still, yet, ago, hence.*
- (3) Adverbs of Manner:—*quickly, (and a multitude in -ly), somehow, anyhow, how, etc.*
- (4) Adverbs of Degree:—*very, rather, so, almost, scarcely, quite, too, however, etc.*
- (5) Interrogative Adverbs:—*where? when? how? why? wherefore? whyever? however?, etc.*
- (6) Relative Adverbs:—*where, when, how, whereby, wherewith, wherein, whereof, etc.*
- (7) Adverbs of Modality:—*not, certainly, possibly, probably, apparently, etc.*
- (8) Sentence Adverbs:—*properly, rightly, luckily, unluckily, surely, advisedly, (un)fortunately, etc.*

## ADVERBS IN DETAIL.

§186. Classes 7 and 8 require some further explanation, and so do certain adverbs in classes 1 to 6 which are difficult in meaning or construction.

(1) *Adverbs of Place.*

*Off* is originally the accented variant of the preposition *of*. It expresses separation in position (*to stand off*) or by motion (*to run off*) and is now used as an



adverb only in such compound verbs and in a few expressions (*The horses are off*, i.e., 'have started'; *The race is off*, i.e., 'will not take place'). It is often replaced by *away*, which covers some of the same meaning, and always so if a preposition is dependent on the adverb (e.g., *away from*).

*Up* and some other adverbs of place (e.g., *down*, *near*) cannot themselves be governed by prepositions, as can many adverbs, the reason apparently being that they are felt to be as much prepositions themselves as adverbs. After a preposition they are replaced by words of corresponding meaning (*above*, *below*, *near by*) which, though also used as prepositions, are felt to be more commonly adverbs.

### *Errors with Adverbs of Place*

(§186).

Error 245. The real feeling of our countrymen *all over* towards the scheme . . . .

*All over* may be used as an adverb of degree metaphorically (i.e. *That's him all over* = 'that's his manner entirely') or as an adverb of place referring to the surface of an object (e.g. *Wash the floor all over*, i.e. 'completely'). Neither of these meanings suits the sentence which should have, instead, *everywhere*.

Error 246. Those conditions are still holding us *backwards*.

*Backwards* and all adverbs in *-wards* express motion. This is not suitable to the verb *hold*, which should have, instead, *back*.

Error 247. The Chief had a summer residence about two miles *off* from the town.

Instead of *off* we should have *away*, as shown above.

Error 248. The reform must come from *up*.

*Up* being one of the adverbs with a strong prepositional character which will not be governed by a preposition (*from*), use here *above*, which has a more adverbial and less prepositional character.

(2) *Adverbs of Time.*

§187. A few pairs of adverbs of this class have nearly, but not quite, identical meanings, and have to be differentiated from each other.

*Still—Yet.* Both connect time present with time past, but *still* describes a state or action as continuing into the present while *yet* describes it as continuing up to the present. This fine distinction shows clearest in negative statements and in questions (*He is still not there* = 'He continues not to be there'; while *He is not there yet* = 'He has not arrived'; *Is he still there?* = 'Does he continue to be there?'; while *Is he there yet?* = 'Has he arrived?').

*Ago—Before.* Both measure time backwards into the past, but *ago* usually measures it only from the present moment; if from a given moment in the past or future it must be qualified by another adverb expressing length of time (I knew him *long ago*; She was born *three years ago* next Tuesday). *Before* cannot measure time back into the past from the future; it measures time back into the past from the present without qualification by an adverb of time (I have never seen him *before*); similarly, it measures time back from a past event (I met him last week; I had never met him *before*.)

*Hence—After.* Both measure time forwards into the future, but, like *ago*, *hence* measures only from the present moment with qualification of time (Meet me *a week hence*), while *after* measures time forwards from the past into a more recent past (We met a year



ago. Some months *after*, I heard he had gone to India). *Hence* is now old-fashioned and is being replaced by *from now*. *Later* can also be used for *after*, and, further, expresses time forwards from a future date (Next week we shall be in London, a week *later* in *Paris*).

### *Errors with Adverbs of Time*

(§187).

Error 249. When the college was established, Lajpat Rai was *yet* practising at Hissar.

*Yet* is old-fashioned in a positive statement (e.g. Wordsworth's 'The tree is living yet' would now be written 'The tree is still living'). Use *still*.

Error 250. He had written a book some time *ago*.

*Had written*, the pluperfect, shows that time is here measured back from a past event, therefore *before*.

Error 251. We deplore the greater centralization now than some years *before*.

This refers to a given time (*some years*) measured back from *now*, therefore *ago*.

Error 252. A few days *hence* the owner of the house came to the spot.

This is not time in the future measured from the present (*hence*) but from the past (*came*), therefore *after* or *later*.

Error 253. It is *scarcely*, if ever, that questions of military policy are brought up.

This is the wrong kind of adverb. *Scarcely* is an adverb of degree. What is wanted is *seldom*, an adverb of time.

### (3) *Adverbs of Manner*.

§188. The difficulties here are with the distinction between *somehow* and *anyhow*.

*Somehow*—*Anyhow*. The difference between these is similar to that between *some* and *any*, i.e., *somehow* is definite and expects a positive response and refers

to what is believed to be possible, while *anyhow* is indefinite and suggests or goes with a negative.

### *Errors with Adverbs of Manner*

(§188).

Error 254. He told the Moderates that they must manage to work with the new party *anyhow*.

This expresses a positive and definite manner, therefore *somehow* is necessary.

### (4) *Adverbs of Degree.*

§189. Mainly the difficulties centre here round the use of *very* and adverbs of degree of similar meaning. Other pairs of nearly synonymous adverbs of degree also cause difficulty.

*Very—Much, Such, Too.* *Very* is perhaps the commonest English adverb of degree, expresses a high degree and goes with positive and superlative adjectives (He is *very old*, the *very oldest* man I know). It is so little used by Indian students as to appear to be almost unknown to them. *Much* as an adverb (it is used also as adjective and as pronoun) expresses a relatively greater degree and goes with comparative adjectives (His brother is *much older* than him). *Such* expresses a relative degree equal to or resembling something silently suggested or else expressed in an *as*-clause and goes with a positive adjective (I have never seen *such* an old man. Few men make *such* a good friend *as he does*). *Too* expresses an excessive degree and goes with positive adjectives (This tea is *too sweet*; I cannot drink it).

*Nearly—About.* Both express a degree of approximation to a certain point, but *nearly* expresses a degree below that point, while *about* expresses an uncertain nearness above or below the point (He said he



would come *about* 8; it's *nearly* 8 now, *about* 5 minutes to).

*Quite—Still, Even.* *Quite* suggests a definite limit reached and goes with positive and superlative adjectives (He was *quite* young, *quite* the youngest man there). *Still* and *even* suggest a relative degree above a limit and go with comparative adjectives (There were boys of 18 at the school, and some *still* older, or *even* older, or older *still*).

*So—Enough.* With adjectives of quality or quantity *so* suggests abundance, while *enough* suggests only sufficiency. Sometimes, with adjectives describing human qualities, *enough* may indicate that the sufficiency is only just attained, is bare. In use, *so* precedes the adjective it qualifies, *enough* follows.

#### *Errors with Adverbs of Degree*

(§189).

Error 255. They will see how *much* difficult it will be. *Much* cannot qualify adjectives in the positive degree. Here, since a high degree of difficulty is to be expressed with the positive, say *how very difficult*.

Error 256. I know *full* well.

This is possible, but *full* as an adverb is old-fashioned. Say instead *very well*.

Error 257. This student is *too* tall.

If so, then the student is taller than he ought to be! *Too* expresses excess above a standard. Correct by saying *very tall*.

Error 258. He had an unhappy love affair, which was responsible for the production of *such* exquisite poetry.

*Such* expresses a relative degree of excellence. Here, however, a high degree is meant, therefore *very exquisite poetry*.

Error 259. I have worked as acting secretary in *so* many companies.

Again, this should be *very many companies*. These five examples of errors show how almost determinedly Indian students seem to avoid using the common and regular *very*.

Error 260. My financial position had by this time improved *so well* that . . . .

Error 261. We know Mr Aiyar *more* than our contemporary does.

These two are errors in choice of the right kind of adverb to go with the verb each qualifies. According to their meaning, some verbs (like *know*) require an adverb of manner (I know him *well*), other verbs an adverb of degree (like *improve*: He has *much* improved). In the above sentences these have been confused, and the correction would be *improved so much that . . .*; *We know Mr Aiyar better than . . .*

Error 262. As soon as the volunteers were seen, the sentry gave the word and *nearly* 20 policemen appeared.

It is a common error in India to use *nearly* to mean any degree of approximation. The writer meant *about* 20 policemen. *Nearly* 20 would mean 'just less than 20', which is surely absurd in the context.

Error 263. Their ages vary from 14 to 30, and there were one or two who were *quite* older.

According to the difference explained above, this should be either *still older* or *even older* or *older still*.

Error 264. The promoters of this meeting have been kind *enough* to ask me to preside.

*Enough* here suggests a slightly depreciatory attitude, as though the speaker were not very pleased to preside and rather looks down on the promoters of the meeting. Substitute *so kind*.

Error 265. The procession was *quite about* two miles in length.



Error 266. The articles appearing in their columns so  
*off and on* . . . .

Error 267. It was decided by *other* factors *rather*  
than . . . .

These are three examples of sentences where an unnecessary adverb of degree has been put in. A procession must be either *quite* or else *about* any given length; it cannot be both at once, for these adverbs are incompatible in meaning with each other. Likewise, *so* and *off and on* are incompatibles, for *off and on* expresses absence as well as presence of the articles, and how can articles or anything else have a high degree of absence and presence? Finally, the adjective *other* and the adverb *rather* both concern alternatives and both are construed with *than*, but they will not go together, for *other* suggests no more than one alternative while *rather* suggests preference of one alternative. Here *rather* should be omitted, as should also *so* and either *quite* or *about* in the other sentences.

Error 268. It is *very well* to say that . . . .

Here the idiomatic phrase requires the addition of *all*, i.e. *It is all very well to say*, etc. (*All* may be used both as a pronoun—*This is all I have*—or as an adjective—*All men love life*—or as an adverb—*That's all right; This is all-important*).

### (5) Interrogative Adverbs.

§190. These adverbs introduce questions. They are also found introducing subordinate clauses after head-verbs expressing a question, i.e. reported questions.

*Where—Whence.* Whether used as interrogative or as relative adverbs, *where* and *whence* are distinguished from each other by *where* suggesting position and *whence* (= 'from where') suggesting motion.

## WRITTEN ENGLISH

*Error with Interrogative Adverbs*

(§190).

Error 269. I would like to ask him *where* came all the honour which he is so proud of.

This is a typical confusion of the two adverbs in a reported question. *Came* suggests motion, therefore *whence*.

(6) *Relative Adverbs*.

§191. These adverbs introduce only subordinate clauses. They at the same time refer back to a noun expressed or suggested in the main clause, and are therefore termed relative, e.g.: The house *where* I was born; The days *when* I was young.

The compound relative adverbs—*whereby*, *wherewith*, etc.—show one of these adverbs (*where*) governed by a preposition, here placed after its object, and demonstrate, further, how like a relative pronoun is a relative adverb.

(7) *Adverbs of Modality*.

§192. This class of adverbs and also the next and last class are peculiar in that they do not qualify any single word in the sentence, as do the adverbs in the first six classes. They qualify whole ideas or sentences.

For instance, in answer to the question *Did Rama say that?* one boy may reply *Rama did not say it* and another reply *Rama certainly did say it*. The two answers express the different attitudes of the speakers towards the fact contained in the question, and the attitudes are expressed mainly by the adverbs *not* and *certainly*. These adverbs do not qualify any particular word in the sentences they belong to, but they express the speaker's attitude or 'mood' and are, therefore, called adverbs of Modality.



The answers to the question above might also have been :—

*Possibly* (or *probably* or *apparently*) Rama did say it. which are equivalent to *It is possible* (or *probable* or *apparent*) *that Rama said it*, and show convincingly how detached these modal adverbs are from any particular word in the sentence.

*No doubt* is an adverb of modality, whose meaning and use are not always understood. It does not mean the same as *undoubtedly*; there is a great difference of modality or attitude of mind behind the two expressions. *Undoubtedly* expresses an unreserved attitude, and *He was undoubtedly wrong* means 'I have no doubt he was wrong'. *No doubt*, on the other hand, suggests a qualified or reserved attitude of agreement, and *No doubt he was wrong* means 'There is no doubt he was wrong, but perhaps there was a reason for it'.

#### *Error with Adverbs of Modality.*

(§192).

Error 270. The owner has *no doubt* made a very good choice of situation.

Suggests only a qualified agreement with the choice ('perhaps he might have made a better one' is in the speaker's mind). Evidently, however, unreserved agreement was intended, i.e. *The owner has undoubtedly made*, etc.

#### (8) *Sentence Adverbs.*

§193. These adverbs are like the former in not qualifying any particular word in the sentence, but they are even more detached from the construction and stand for a separate sentence. They are therefore called *Sentence Adverbs* since they express a whole sentence.

Thus, in answer to a question *Did he give the name of his informant?* the reply might be *He refused to, and quite properly.* *Properly* here does not qualify any part of the sentence *He refused to* but stands as a separate and independent thought, meaning 'and it was quite proper for him to refuse'.

Similarly, in *Luckily he arrived in time*, the meaning is not that he arrived luckily, which is nonsense, but that he arrived in time and it was lucky that he did.

#### ADJECTIVES AS ADVERBS OF DEGREE.

§194. In conversation only, not in literary English, a certain number of adjectives are used with certain other adjectives to express a degree, moderate or extreme, of the second adjective. These first adjectives have lost most of their original independent meaning; they are not quite adverbs, and so do not form a separate class, but are common enough in every day talk to be worth mention. Examples are the following words in italics:—

That was *real* (or *uncommon*) kind of you.

It's *beastly* (or *jolly* or *cruel*) cold outside.

They were both *blind* (or *dead*) drunk.

There were *precious* (or *mighty*) few of them.

He's a *pretty* careful fellow.

The man was *stark* dead when they found him.

I call that *thundering* good (or *devilish* bad).

#### COMPOUND VERBS (VERB + ADVERB).

§195. It is a rule of word-order in English that words which qualify each other are placed next to each other if possible, the adjective next to its noun, the adverb next to its verb, adjective, adverb or noun.



As regards verbs and their qualifying adverbs, this arrangement is quite easy with an intransitive verb, thus :—

I *earnestly hope* (or *hope earnestly*) that he has not forgotten.

But with a transitive verb there is the difficulty that English will not allow anything between a verb and its object. An adverb qualifying such a verb must, therefore, come either before the verb, e.g. :—

The mistress *immediately sent* Padma out of the room.  
or after the object, e.g. :—

The mistress *sent* Padma *immediately* out of the room.

§196. However, some adverbs—all very short ones—are capable of becoming so closely attached to certain verbs that they will not be separated from them even by a direct object (unless this object is a personal pronoun), e.g. :—

When Shankar got home he *took off* his heavy shoes  
and *put on* slippers.

Such compounds of verb and adverb as *to take off* and *to put on* are called Compound Verbs.

§197. The relation of verb and adverb in a compound verb is closer than that of verb and object also in two other constructions, viz., (a) in a question, when the object comes first :—

What hat has he *put on*?

and (b) in passive constructions :—

Shoes must be *taken off* before entering.

Only in one case is the adverb separated from its verb in such a compound, and that is when the direct object is a personal pronoun :—

Take these shoes to Vishnu and tell him to *put them on*.

§198. The verbs and adverbs which are so compounded together are many and are among the commonest in the language, viz., :—

(Verbs) *to make, do, get, send, put, fill, take, go, come, write, fall, call, ring, keep, tell, say, stay, find, fit, etc.*

(Adverbs) *away, back, by, down, in, off, on, out, over, up.*

These compound verbs are very numerous and in very common use, but it is their meaning rather than their use which causes Indian students difficulty and, though this is dictionary-work, we must look a little into the making of compound verbs and their meanings.

§199. First we must remember that a simple verb may be used with both literal and figurative meanings, e.g., *to fall* in :—

The chimney *fell* on the roof (Literal).

Oil shares *fell* on the Exchange (Figurative).

The literal meaning expresses a material fact, while the figurative meaning expresses a transference into the world of ideas and emotions.

§200. From this point begin the steps in the making of a compound verb, and we must keep the literal and figurative meanings of the simple verb rigidly apart.

*Step 1.* The compound verb is made from the simple verb in its literal meaning only.

Thus, *to fall down* is made from the literal meaning of *to fall*, and we can say *Hari fell down* (literal). In this case the new verb *to fall down* does not develop any figurative meaning of its own (we cannot say, e.g. :—*Oil shares fell down*).



§201. *Step 2.* The compound verb may develop figurative meanings of its own. If so, these always grow out of the compound verb, not out of the simple verb.

Thus, with *to pick* and *to pick up*, the development is :—

*to pick*—(Lit.) Shirin *picked* a flower—(Fig.) Shirin *picked* a quarrel.

*to pick up*—(Lit.) Shirin *picked up* a pencil—(Fig.) Shirin *picked up* (i.e. 'improved in health').

§202. A richer development is possible with a simple verb that has both transitive and intransitive uses. Take, for instance, *to break* and its compounds with *down* and *up*. They may be represented thus :—

*to break* { (Trans. Lit.) He *broke* the stick. (Trans. Fig.) He *broke* the bank.  
(Intrans. Lit.) The stick *broke*. (Intrans. Fig.) The bank *broke*.

*to break down* { (Tr. Lit.) He *broke down* a wall.  
(Tr. Fig.) He *broke down* all opposition.  
(Int. Lit.) She *broke down* (i.e. was overcome by emotion). (Int. Fig.) Her health *broke down*.

*to break up* { (Tr. Lit.) The waves *broke up* the ship. (Tr. Fig.) They have *broke up* the home.  
(Int. Lit.) The ship *broke up*. (Int. Fig. 1) The meeting *broke up*. (Int. Fig. 2) The old man is *breaking up* (i.e. 'his health is failing').

§203. The above shows only a beginning of the possibilities of making compound verbs and developing their meanings. The development may be much more complicated. Notice, in particular, how, as meanings develop and ramify, two separate compounds of a verb such as *to break down* and *to break up* may come very near to each other in meaning. Thus, in :—

His health *broke down*; he was fast *breaking up* (i.e., dying).

both compounds apply to loss of health, though they still mean different things.

Occasionally, too, different compounds of the same verb may come to mean exactly the same thing, e.g., *to come round* and *to come to* in :—

He fainted, and it was 20 minutes before he *came to* (or *came round*) = 'recovered consciousness'.

§204. *Step 3.* The adverb may ultimately lose its own meaning, partially or wholly, and have only a strengthening value for the verb.

This is specially true of *up*. The original sense of 'rising' is clear in the literal senses of *to stand up*, *to sit up*; it alters somewhat in *to walk up*, *to send up*; it becomes obscure in the figurative *to give up*; and it dies out, leaving only an emphatic value in the figurative *to hurry up*, as in the anxious mother saying to her boy of ten up a tree :—

*Hurry up and come down!*

#### *Errors with Compound Verbs*

(§§195-204).

(§199). (a) The commonest error with these is to use an unnecessary compound verb when the simple verb alone is sufficient and right. This is due to the wrong idea that an adverb is necessary to give a figurative tinge to the verb. But we have seen that simple verbs develop figurative meanings alone. The compound verb written in the errors usually gives, therefore, quite a wrong meaning.

Error 271. They would not *stoop down* to such conduct.

This is meant to signify a figurative 'lowering' of oneself, and that is *to stoop*, the simple verb. *To stoop down*, the compound, has only a literal meaning.

Error 272. The semi-liquid substance is allowed to *harden up*.

Error 273. He *leaves up* all his social interests.



Apparently the *up* is added here for emphasis, but there are no such compounds as *to harden up* or *to leave up* and no need for them. *To harden* and *leave* are enough in these senses. (It is probable that *to leave up* is wrongly imitated from *to give up* 'to discontinue'.)

Error 274. Some of the offenders have been *blown off* from guns.

The compound *to blow off* applies to steam, in a literal sense. The offenders were *blown* from guns, the simple verb in a transitive literal sense.

Error 275. He spoke as a moralist, and *gave himself away* to the sombre reflection that . . . .

*To give oneself away* means, figuratively, 'to betray oneself'. The writer meant the simple verb *gave himself*, in the figurative sense.

Error 276. The so-called extremists like *to show him up* as their leader.

If so, then they meant to 'expose his evil practices', for that is the meaning of *to show up*. The writer meant, again, simply *to show*. (Perhaps he was misled by *to hold up*, 'to exhibit'.)

Error 277. I *laughed him out* as I did not believe a word he said.

Error 278. Let them not *point out* the finger of scorn at you.

Error 279. They will *find out* some other excuse.

Here are three errors with *out*, adding it unnecessarily and thereby making verbs of the wrong meaning. *To laugh out* does not exist; what is wanted is *to laugh at* (*I laughed at him*, etc.), where *at* is a preposition. *To point out* means 'to indicate', either literally or figuratively; one does not 'indicate' a finger, one *points* a finger of scorn. *To find out* means 'to discover'; what is here wanted is a verb meaning 'to invent', i.e. the simple verb *to find*.

Error 280. Information on this point should be *collected together*.

*Collect* already contains the idea of 'together' (Lat. *con* 'together', *lego* 'I place'), so that the *together* is clearly superfluous.

(§200) (b) The converse error of using the simple verb when a compound of it is required is much less common, but nevertheless troublesome.

Error 281. Sir Narayan pointed out that what was wanted was not a mere *gulping* of whatever was told.

*To gulp* is used only literally in the sense of 'to swallow'. A metaphorical 'swallowing' such as the above requires *to gulp down*.

Error 282. Widows should be *gathered* in houses specially established for them.

*To gather* is used only of animals and inanimate things. People must be *gathered together*.

(§202) (c) Finally, if a compound verb is required, the wrong adverb may be put on, giving a wrong meaning to the verb.

Error 283. The wife of Rama was *carried away* by a demon.

This should be *carried off*. The difference between *off* and *away* is small but often definite: *off* emphasizes separation from a person or place, *away* emphasizes motion into the distance. Here the separation from Rama is to be emphasized.

Error 284. *Take out* your coat (or *cap* or *boots*).

A very common error. Articles of clothing are *taken off* a person, from his exterior, but *taken out* from a cupboard or box, i.e. from an interior.

#### ADVERB ADJUNCTS.

§205. Other parts of speech, besides adverbs and some adjectives, can be used in an adverbial manner. This is particularly true of nouns, e.g. in:—

Hari walked *to school three miles each way every day*.



the phrases *to school*, *three miles*, *each way*, *every day*—each containing a noun as the principal part—express, respectively, the direction, the distance, and the time of Hari's walking. That is, they all qualify the verb *walked* and are, therefore, used as adverbs.

Such noun-phrases used as adverbs are called Adverb Adjuncts.

§206. Looking more closely at the above examples, we see that three of the adjuncts (*three miles*, *each way*, *every day*) are composed without the use of a preposition, while one (*to school*) is composed with a preposition. Adverb adjuncts may, then, be divided into two classes, according as they are composed of nouns (a) without a preposition, or (b) with a preposition.

§207. Adverb adjuncts can be further sub-divided under each of these two heads according to what they express, and the following is a summary of the various sub-divisions according to the meaning expressed:—

(a) Adverb Adjuncts without a preposition may express:—

- (i) Extent of space or time:—Hari walked *three miles an hour*.
- (ii) Point of time:—Come here *this instant*!
- (iii) Direction:—The fox ran *this way*.
- (iv) Measure of weight, age, price or quantity:—He *weighs six stone* and is *ten years old*.  
The book costs *seven shillings and sixpence*.  
He has not changed *an atom*.

Note that nouns used as adverb adjuncts without a preposition must always be qualified by an adjective or article.

§208. (b) Adverb Adjuncts with a preposition can, along with other purposes,

- (i) express direction :—Hari went *to school*.
- (ii) express circumstances :—He ran *in a race*.
- (iii) express an agent or instrument :—He was punished *by the headmaster with a fine*.
- (iv) express resemblance or comparison :—Hari acted *like a sensible boy*.  
He is as brave *as a lion*.
- (v) be the prepositional object of a verb :—He thought *of his distant home*.

(§§205-208). *Errors with Adverb Adjuncts*

Nearly all errors under this head are made with adverb adjuncts with a preposition and, since these depend for their meaning on the preposition used, they are dealt with in Chapter X.

Occasional errors are made with

(§207) *Adverb Adjuncts without a Preposition*.

Both the errors given here are due to imitation of the vernacular Indian construction.

Error 285. *Every day at night* he used to read for several hours.

Here the adjective *every* can qualify *night* and make a perfectly good adverb adjunct, viz., *every night*. (The putting together of *day* and *night* in the same phrase sounds, in any case, unnatural.) Similarly, we say also *to-morrow morning*, etc., making the adverb *to-morrow* act as an adjective.

Error 286. When he had finished speaking, *at that time* there was a great uproar.

This error is due to the vernacular practice, which generally omits the *when* of the subordinate adverbial clause but supplies the *then* of the main clause (*hya veles in Marathi* = 'at that time'). The English practice is, how-



ever, the opposite. We supply the *when* but generally omit the *then* (unless the *then*-clause happens to come first), i.e. :—

When he had finished speaking, there was, etc.

If the *then* is supplied in the second clause, it is emphatic :—

When he had finished speaking, *then* there was, etc.

## EXERCISES ON CHAPTER IX

### ADVERBS

§§187-194.

(1) Each of the following sentences contains an adverb adjunct which is wrong in form. Correct each error, and add a note explaining each correction :—

1. If he is a bad man, in that case we may say so.
2. The salary will be Rs. 300 per month in the beginning.
3. Yesterday in the evening we went for a walk.
4. I received a letter on last Thursday.
5. Did the Cabinet permit their policy to be influenced by a jot by the decision of their predecessors?
6. Some of these stones are monoliths of 17 feet long.
7. The meeting is to be held to-morrow in the afternoon.
8. In the Great Hall have been created statues of eight feet in height.

§§195-204.

(2) Correct the compound verbs in the following sentences, and give the actual meaning of the incorrect verb used in each sentence :—

1. The miser keeps himself away from enjoying comforts.
2. *The Indian Social Reformer* spotted out our social defects.
3. The dead have not all yet been found out and disposed of.
4. These are words that foster up a national spirit.

5. It is not below their dignity to mix up freely with people of the lower classes.
6. I like to rise up early in the morning.
7. They meant to stick up to it and live at the camp, whatever might happen.
8. This litigation may take up seven years.
9. We learn that they have started up agricultural associations.
10. Several of these letters were afterwards found out.
11. On the right, parallel to the eye, beautiful forest scenes are carved out.
12. The days passed off happily.
13. He has lit up the fires of reform.
14. When I sat down to it I could not write out a single line of the essay.
15. When the concrete is dried up, the wooden case is taken out.
16. Tears sprang up in her eyes.
17. The windows were fitted in with glass frames.
18. The second difficulty is, silver will fall down.
19. Nearly 15 years have passed by since that Act was passed.
20. They will soon find out their mistake.
21. The carpet covered up the floor of the room.
22. He passed out his B.A. this year.
23. The aristocrats would be the first to pack up and leave off their country.
24. In this pleasant manner she passed away her time.
25. They will soon find out some other excuse.
26. I bow down to this decision.
27. Mr. Asquith's Budget marked out a new era in the fiscal policy of the United Kingdom.
28. Every boy or girl was asked to pick up the flower he or she liked. I selected a rose.
29. In Kaliyuga people will be fond of picking up quarrels.



§§ 195-204.

(3) Make any necessary corrections in the following compound verbs:—

1. I do not want this worn off bag.
2. He should not give out such ideas.
3. We ought to think of people's good qualities and leave off their bad ones.
4. They leave no stone unturned to marry away even infants.
5. A professor has been specially brought down from England.
6. The Englishman in India should throw out his habitual reserve.
7. In the recent rains parts of the Ghats have been washed off.
8. The police took out my uniform and fell upon me.

#### TEST PAPERS 9—(ADVERBS)

##### 9 A

(1) In each of the following sentences the wrong adverb or another part of speech has been used. Replace it with a suitable adverb, and give the kind of adverb you use in each case:—

1. He had been married two years ago.
2. Tennyson is truly considered as the representative poet of his age.
3. I should like to ask him where came all the honour which he is so proud of.
4. Almost not a word was said to encourage me in my work.
5. Tennyson's poem *The Two Voices* is no doubt a preface to his *In Memoriam*.
6. The witness stated that he had retired from active public life since two years.
7. From the hearty reception accorded to the scheme all over, it seems likely to succeed.

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8. Such is the honour which he is so much proud of.

9. What is more known to a child than his daily experiences?

10. Nearly twenty policemen gave lathi blows to the fallen captain.

11. Mr. J. said that it was exactly one month before that Mahatma Gandhi was arrested.

12. Posters have been stuck up all over in Bombay.

13. The cause of education is as much sacred and religious as is the renewing of old temples.

14. I went yesterday to a symphony concert. The music was too beautiful!

15. In schools the language which pays most is learnt.

16. The number of these people is not insignificant. On the other hand, they can be counted by millions.

(2) In each of the following sentences either an unnecessary adverb has been put in or a necessary adverb has been omitted. Explain any corrections you would make:—

1. Camps are being run at so many places in British India.

2. Is he not treading rather very near the danger point?

3. Red Cross men knew only to save humanity.

4. Inefficient education at the present forms a barrier in our way than a help towards movements calculated to advance our country.

## 9 B

(3) Compose sentences in which *after* and *before* are used (a) as adverbs, (b) as prepositions, (c) as conjunctions.

(4) What is the meaning of *very*? Show, in sentences of your own, what other adverbs are wrongly used, by Indian students, in place of *very*.

(5) Explain the character of Adverbs of Modality and construct three sentences of your own, in each of which an adverb of modality is correctly used.



9 C

(6) What is a Compound Verb? Explain briefly how a simple verb may develop in meaning by conversion into a compound verb, and give examples of your own.

9 D

(7) Give the actual meaning of the compound verbs in the following sentences, and then correct them to suit the context:—

1. I am afraid he is wasting away his time.
2. The time has gone by when the highest duty of Government was to impart European knowledge.
3. They would not be cowed down because their leaders had been taken from them.
4. Ruskin always forces down upon us the relations between ethics and art.
5. Does he administer the oath in the same way as an interpreter swears in a witness?
6. By this process all the best Indians would leave off India.
7. Though outwardly he showed off his contentment, he cherished in his bosom the deadliest hatred.
8. He has donned on his best clothes.
9. The excesses of the French Revolution were never copied out in England.
10. The lines of progress were drawn out at the last meeting of the Society.
11. The objects of this Association will be found out at p. 3 of their report.
12. Mechanical and scientific appliances are rapidly improving and killing out smaller and primitive industries.
13. England's mission in India has included the task of wiping out the poor widow's tears.
14. I have not time to give over to it.
15. All this covered up a period of 3 months from June 1935.
16. There are great barriers making up for disunion among us.

17. They kept themselves in evidence by picking up rows with the authorities.

18. The majority of statesmen would be inclined towards settling up certain of the main problems of India.

19. He scrupulously stuck up to tradition.

(8) Convert the following simple verbs into compound verbs suitable to the context:—

1. He also *pointed* the folly of depending too much on agriculture.

2. Witnesses are required who do not *break* in cross-examination.

3. He was pledged to *carry* his work on a sound basis.

4. The Bengal ryots, when *trodden* by the oppression of the indigo-planters, refused to touch indigo seed.

5. They found little difficulty in *breaking* the opposition.

6. You thus *hold* to ridicule the reforms suggested.

7. His sayings and writings have been *passed* in silence.



## CHAPTER X

## TRANSITIVITY AND PREPOSITIONS

§209. Verbs, we have seen, are words which express an action or a state. When an action 'passes across' (Lat. *transit*) from the doer of the action to the sufferer, the verb expressing the action is said to be used transitively, e.g.: *I want a book*, in which *want* is used transitively because the action passes across from *I* to *book*.

When the action does not pass across, the verb is said to be used intransitively, e.g., *Men laugh*.

The first part of this chapter will show more fully what is meant by Transitivity in English verbs.

§210. A verb used intransitively cannot make its action go across directly to an object, but it often can make it go across indirectly, i.e. through a Preposition (Lat. *præpositio* = 'placing in front') which is a word not only 'placed in front' of another but governing it just as a transitive verb governs its direct object.

Thus, no action crosses in *Men laugh*, but in *Men laugh at fools* the action does cross from *men* to *fools* by means of the preposition *at*. *Fools* is called the Prepositional Object of the verb *laugh*, so that many intransitive verbs, though they cannot take a direct object, can take a prepositional object, and this is one of the most valuable uses of prepositions.

This connexion of Transitivity with Prepositions is the reason why both are studied together in one chapter. The second part of this chapter concerns

itself with the uses and other characteristics of Prepositions.

### *Transitivity*

#### TRANSITIVE AND INTRANSITIVE.

§211. If two boxes were labelled, respectively, Transitive and Intransitive, most English verbs would go into either one box or the other, i.e., they would be used always either with a direct object or without one.

However, there are a number of very common verbs which refuse to be disposed of so readily. For instance, the verb *changed* in

He has *changed* his clothes.

takes a direct object *clothes* and appears to be transitive, while in

A good friend never *changes*.

the same verb takes no direct object and appears, therefore, to be intransitive.

Verbs such as this, and also two other kinds, need to be examined more closely.

#### TRANSITIVES USED INTRANSITIVELY.

§212. This is the use connected with such verbs as *change*, which we are now going to examine, and means that a certain number of English verbs, though regularly governing a direct object, can be used without one under certain circumstances. They fall into classes according to the variety of these circumstances, and first we take such verbs as can omit their object.

(1) The English are economical in speech and, when the object of a verb can be readily guessed, it is regularly omitted. This habit began with reflexive verbs, so that there are very few reflexive verbs left in English (e.g., *to absent oneself*, *perjure oneself*,



*betake oneself*, etc.). It then spread to reciprocal pronouns as objects (*one another, each other*), and finally to all other objects—nouns, pronouns and even noun clauses—which common usage might expect. Examples such as the following illustrate this practice:—

(a) Omitting the reflexive:—

*He is dressing. Behave! Never mind! He has recovered.*

*They have settled in London. Why did he submit? Don't bother!*

(b) Omitting the reciprocal:—

*They loved and married young. The two no sooner met than they fought.*

(c) Omitting other expected objects:—

*I know. Do you remember? He answered. Shut up! If I mistake not. He whistled. He has decided. That will do.*

(2) Next come verbs of change of position or state, which in other languages, e.g. French and German, are peculiar in that they take *to be* as their auxiliary for past tenses. These, in English, may act either transitively or intransitively:—

{ <i>Stop thief!</i>	{ <i>Mend it or end it!</i>
{ <i>The clock stopped.</i>	{ <i>His health is mending.</i>
	{ <i>The tale ended happily.</i>

*Have you boiled the potatoes? Yes, they are boiling.*  
*Can you start the car? It has started.*

(3) Some transitive verbs made from nouns or adjectives can also be used intransitively:—

*We can board and lodge here quite cheaply.*

*That doesn't count. Their views contrasted.*

*It is hard to warm this house. Clear the table.*

*His heart warmed to hear it. The weather has cleared.*

(4) Older English was able to make, from certain intransitive verbs, transitives expressing 'to make to' do the intransitive action. Thus, *to set* came from *to sit*, and *to lay* from *to lie*. Then these causative transitives, omitting their reflexive object, were used as intransitives:—

*Set* down on this chair. The sun is *setting*.

There let him *lay*! (Byron, *Childe Harold*, Canto IV).

Except in the second example, this habit is now considered vulgar, but other verbs, e.g.:—*to stand*, *grow*, *ring*, *stick*, *starve*, *work*, etc., have now added a (transitive) causative sense to their original intransitive one without changing their form:—

He *worked* his employees hard.

That method won't *work*.

*Stand* him in the corner!

The old oak still *stands*.

(5) Finally, there are some verbs that can be called activo-passive in use, since they can be used in the active form with a passive meaning:—

How cold it *feels*! This coat won't *brush*. House to *let*. The dirt will not *rub* off. The book *is selling* well.

#### DUAL CONSTRUCTION VERBS.

§213. There is, besides, a peculiar group of verbs which takes either a direct object or a prepositional one, according to the meaning which the verb bears. These we call Dual Construction Verbs. Thus, in:—

I do not *know* the man, but I *know of* him.  
the verb *know* is used first in a perfective aspect ('I am not well acquainted with the man') and takes a direct object, and then in an imperfective aspect ('I have heard something about him') and takes a prepositional object (*of him*).



Another example of this difference of aspect is:—

The batsman *hit at* the ball but did not *hit* it.  
in which *hit at* is imperfective ('tried to hit') and intransitive, taking a prepositional object (*at the ball*), while *hit* is perfective ('succeeded in striking') and transitive.

Other dual construction verbs with *at* are *to catch (at)*, *grasp (at)*, *strike (at)*, *fire (at)*, etc.

A similar example with another preposition, viz. *for*, is:—

The police are *searching* the house; they are *searching for* clues to the robbery.

in which *are searching* is first perfective and transitive and then imperfective ('searching in order to obtain') and intransitive with a prepositional object.

§214. The difference of meaning between the transitive use of a dual construction verb and the intransitive is sometimes stronger still than one of aspect. Thus, *to see* a person means either 'to perceive' him or 'to pay a visit' to him, while *to see to* a person means 'to look after' him; *to attend* a person means 'to be present with' him, while *to attend to* him means 'to give attention to' him (the difference here is that between *attendance* and *attention*). Again, *to own* means 'to possess', while *to own to* means 'to confess' to a fault or weakness; *to finish* a book 'to complete reading' it, while *to finish with* a book is 'not to require' it, whether one has read it or not; *to meet* a person suggests a designed or likely meeting, while *to meet with* a person suggests an accidental meeting.

§215. Further, the different meanings of a dual construction verb may carry with them different objects. Thus, with impersonal objects, *to meet* is used of bills, money claims, objections and means ability

to face them, while *to meet with* is used of accidents or kindness. Similarly, one may *believe* a person or speech, but one *believes in* ideas such as *God, ghosts, votes for women*. Finally, one may *escape* a person or an abstraction such as *observation, attention, suspicion*, but one *escapes from* a place such as *prison*.

§216. Sometimes, however, the difference of meaning between the transitive and intransitive constructions is negligible. Thus, *Do you approve this draft?* means the same as *Do you approve of this draft?*, and there is no difference of meaning between *Do you mind his coming with us?* and *Do you mind about his coming with us?*

§217. A second kind of Dual Construction verb exists also. This kind of verb has one construction with a direct object and a prepositional object, and then another construction in which the prepositional object of the first construction becomes now the direct object while the former direct object becomes a prepositional object after another preposition. For example, we can say either :—

*I impressed upon him the need* for an agreement.  
in which *impressed* takes *need* as direct object and *him* as prepositional object after *upon*, or else :—

*I impressed him with the need* for an agreement.  
in which the same verb now takes *him* as direct object and *need* as prepositional object after another preposition *with*.

Compare with the use of *impress* the use of *forgive, provide, sprinkle* in the following pairs of sentences :—

*Forgive him this weakness.*

*Forgive him for this weakness.*

*We provide atlases for candidates.*

*We provide candidates with atlases.*



*They sprinkled water on the ground.*

*They sprinkled the ground with water.*

Similar double constructions are found with *to credit, entrust, fleece, plant, present, stamp, strew, strike, strip* and *supply*.

#### LIMITED TRANSITIVITY.

§218. A number of verbs are transitive only with certain kinds of objects, but are otherwise intransitive. Such verbs we describe as having Limited Transitivity.

Thus, first of all, there are verbs like *sing, live, die, sleep*, which take as direct objects only nouns derived from the same root as the verb, e.g. :—*to sing a song, to live a life, to die a death, to sleep a sleep*. These objects are called Cognate (Lat.= 'born together' with their verbs).

§219. Secondly, there are the verbs of 'saying', viz., *say, tell, speak, talk*, which are all limited and differ from each other in the number and kind of direct objects they can take. They form an excellent object-lesson in transitivity, and we will therefore examine them more closely :—

*Say* can take *thing* and certain pronouns (*this, that, it, what? which? whom?*) as direct objects (e.g. :—*He said the right thing; say this; what or whom did you say?*) and also a noun-clause (*Say what you like*). It cannot take an indirect object, but only a prepositional one with *to* (*Say it to him*). *Say* is never used intransitively.

*Tell* takes only one or two nouns (*truth, lie*) as direct objects; (*Tell the truth, not lies*) and also a noun-clause (*Tell what you know*). It takes also a personal indirect object (*Tell father everything*). *Tell* can be used intransitively by omitting its expected object (*Tell me! Why don't you tell?*).

*Speak* takes only the nouns *truth*, *word* and names of languages as direct objects (*Speak the truth! Did you speak these words? Does he speak English?*). It is intransitive before other nouns, a pronoun or a noun clause and then requires the help of a preposition or adverb (*Speak to him. Speak of what you know. Speak out what is in your mind*).

*Talk* takes only the nouns *sense*, *nonsense* and, in conversation only, names of languages as direct objects (*Talk sense, not nonsense! Let us talk French!*). Before other nouns, a pronoun or noun-clause it acts like *speak* (*Tell of what you know. Talk to him. Talk over the matter. We have talked it out*).

*Speak* and *talk* are, broadly speaking, intransitive.

The difference in the uses of these four verbs is due to meaning. *Say* suggests speech in general with a stated content, hence an object is required to give the content; *tell* suggests a message or the recipient of a message and, therefore, takes a direct object and also an indirect object; *speak* suggests speech in public without particular reference to what is said, hence no object; *talk* suggests private conversation without stated content, hence no object.

#### ILLUSTRATIONS OF TRANSITIVITY AND INTRANSITIVITY.

§220. To show how difficult it is to tell by the meaning alone of a verb whether it is transitive or intransitive, notice the following:—

*Shut* takes as direct object either an inanimate object (*Shut the door!*) or an animate object (*You have shut the cat in!*), but *close*, which is synonymous with *shut*, takes only an inanimate object (*Close the door!*)

*Reach* is transitive (*We reached the station in good*



*time*), but its synonym *arrive* is intransitive (*We arrived at the station*).

*Resemble* is transitive (*He resembles his father*), but its antonym *differ* is intransitive (*He differs from his father*).

The simple verb *dominate* is transitive (*He dominated all the men of his circle*), but its compound *predominate* is intransitive (*In post-War Europe women predominate*).

### *Errors in Transitivity*

The regular error here is to use a transitive verb as though it were intransitive, and *vice versa*, i.e. either to make a transitive verb take a prepositional object when it should take a direct one, or to make an intransitive verb take a direct object when it should take a prepositional one.

In making these mistakes the authors of them show ignorance of the fact, noted just above, that verbs of the same meaning or opposite meanings often take different constructions, one of the verbs being transitive, the other intransitive. Let us repeat here that meaning alone is a very unsafe guide to whether a verb is transitive or intransitive.

We take in order (A) Transitive verbs mistaken as Intransitive; (B) Transitives with Omitted Object; (C) Intransitive verbs mistaken as Transitive; (D) Dual Construction verbs.

#### (§209) A. *Transitive Verbs mistaken as Intransitive.*

These verbs can be sub-divided into four groups:—(1) Transitives with Intransitive synonyms; (2) Reflexive Verbs; (3) Reciprocal verbs; (4) Other transitives.

##### (1) *Transitives with Intransitive Synonyms.*

Here the transitive is mistaken as intransitive through confusion with its intransitive synonym. We distinguish further between (a) verbs of 'saying', (b) verbs of 'going', (c) other transitives.

(§219).

(a) *Verbs of 'saying'.*

Error 287. But when I have *said* so far I have not ended.

*Said* is a transitive verb, though limited, and requires an object (*far* is an adverb). *Said so much* is the necessary correction, supplying the pronoun *much* as object. The intransitive synonym *spoken so far* is what misled the writer.

Error 288. I seriously *challenge* if anyone can show me a single instance.

*Challenge* is transitive. Rewrite as *I seriously challenge anyone if he*, etc. Perhaps the writer was thinking of *doubt*, which is a transitive which can omit its object (*I seriously doubt if anyone*, etc.)

Error 289. Critics became helpers, grumblers began to *thank*, and confusion was replaced by order.

*Thank* is transitive. Since no object can here be supplied, rewrite as *grumblers began to be thankful*, the intransitive construction which the writer probably meant.

Error 290. Before beginning to *discuss about* these chivalrous customs, . . .

*Discuss* is transitive and needs no preposition. Write *to discuss these chivalrous customs*. Probably the misleading synonym was *to speak (or talk) about*.

Error 291. The poet *describes about* the economic conditions of his day.

Like *discuss*, *describe* is transitive. Omit *about*. Again, the mistake is due to confusion with *speak*, *talk*.

(b) *Verbs of 'going'.*

Error 292. Sometimes the information *reaches* too late.

*Reaches* is transitive but is here left without its necessary object. Since no object can be supplied, substitute the intransitive synonym *arrives*, which was probably intended.

Error 293. A friend volunteered to *accompany*.



<sup>3</sup> *Accompany* is transitive. If no object can be supplied, substitute the intransitive synonym *to go along* instead of *accompany*.

(c) *Other Transitives with Intransitive Synonyms.*

Error 294. A document binding the bride's father so that he may not *defraud* hereafter.

*Defraud* is transitive. No object being suppliable, use instead *cheat*, which is a transitive that can omit its object, as *defraud* cannot.

Error 295. The description of Fame *owes* to Vergil.

*Owe* is transitive. Supply instead *is owing to*, which is intransitive, or *derives from*, which is a transitive that can omit its reflexive object (i.e. *derives itself from*).

Error 296. They must *expiate* for the sin at any cost.

*Expiate* is transitive and needs no *for*, which should be omitted. Probably the synonym *pay for*, which is a transitive with omitted object, is responsible for this error.

Error 297. Encourage this publication by *ordering for* a set.

*Order* is transitive. Omit *for*, which probably comes from the cognate noun (i.e. *by placing an order for a set*).

Error 298. It does not *lack in* unusual variety.

Error 299. So long as we *lack of* men amongst us.

Like error 297, these two errors are due to cognate words. *Lack* is transitive, and no *in* or *of* is required, but we do say *lacking in* for the adjective and *lack of* for the noun, which probably caused these errors.

(2) *Reflexive Verbs.*

By these are meant here verbs either always reflexive or such as may carry a reflexive object when there is no other, both kinds of verbs being transitive.

Error 300. He *betook* to the forest.

*Betake* is transitive and permanently reflexive. Correct as *betook himself*.

Error 301. Instead of working at college, he *enjoyed*.

A very common error. *Enjoy*, however, is transitive and must carry a reflexive object when no other is possible. Rewrite as *he enjoyed himself*.

Error 302. We cannot any longer *suffer* to be guided by them.

*Suffer* is transitive, requiring as object *ourselves* since no other is available. The error is perhaps due to the synonym *endure*, which, however, is a transitive which can omit its object, as *suffer* cannot if the object is reflexive. (*Suffer* can omit other objects.)

### (3) Reciprocal Verbs.

Transitive verbs having a plural subject referring to distinct people or things must carry a reciprocal object *each other*, *one another* when there is no other object, unless they are of the group which can omit such.

Error 303. However these aspects may differ, in one particular they *resemble*.

*Resemble* is transitive. Supply as object *each other*.

### (4) Other Transitives.

Error 304. As her conscience *dictated* her.

*Dictated* is transitive and its direct object is the relative *as*, not *her*, which must be prepositional, i.e. *to her*.

Error 305. To impress upon the Government that the road cess could not *divert* to other purposes.

*Divert* is transitive. As no object is suppleable, not even a reflexive one, and as no synonymous intransitive verb suggests itself, rewrite as a passive, i.e. *could not be diverted*.

### (§212). B. Transitives with Omitted Object.

The difficulty here is to know which transitive verbs in English regularly omit an expected object.

Error 306. He *enlisted himself* as a soldier.

*Enlist* regularly omits a reflexive object, hence *he enlisted as a soldier* is alone correct.

Error 307. This is the cause of students *indulging themselves* in politics.



Like *enlist*, *indulge* also regularly omits a reflexive object, therefore omit *themselves*.

Error 308. High prices have been *ruling* the country for over three years.

This is a more curious mistake. *Rule* is a transitive which can omit its object, and the proper construction here would be *have been ruling in the country*, where *in the country* is an adverbial of place. *Country* is not the direct object of *rule*, as appears here.

(§210). C. *Intransitives mistaken as Transitives*.

Here the error is the reverse of that made under A above, but the reason is the same, viz., confusion of synonymous verbs, one transitive and the other intransitive.

Error 309. He *talked* the following words.

*Talk* is very limitedly transitive, taking only *sense*, *nonsense*. Substitute a transitive synonym, such as *said*, *uttered*, even *spoke* (which will take *words* as object).

Error 310. I pray you not to *insist* me to do a thing which I can't.

*Insist* is intransitive and must take a prepositional object with *on*. Either substitute a synonymous transitive, such as *press* or *urge*, or else use *on* with the gerund-object—*insist on my doing*.

Error 311. Their conversation *was ceased*.

*Cease* is intransitive and has, therefore, no passive. Use instead a transitive synonym in the passive, i.e. *was stopped*, or, more simply, the intransitive active, i.e. *ceased*.

Error 312. An armoured car rushed into the crowd, *trampling* 8 to 14 men.

*Trample* is intransitive and requires a prepositional object with *on*. But 'trampling' is done by hoofs, not by an armoured car on wheels. Use a synonymous transitive, i.e. *running down* 8 to 14 men.

Error 313. *Looked* from a distance, it is interesting in its architectural design.

## WRITTEN ENGLISH

*Look* is intransitive, taking a prepositional object with *at* or other prepositions, according to the meaning required. The combined verb and preposition can be used in the passive as a compound verb, therefore write *Looked at from a distance*, etc.

Error 314. Regiments that *had prided themselves* hitherto that the services of the recruiting officer were never required.

*To pride oneself* is intransitive in effect, requiring a prepositional object with *on*. Here, therefore, either make such a construction with a gerund as object, viz., *had prided themselves on the services of the recruiting officer being never required*, or else substitute a synonymous transitive such as *boast*, i.e. *had boasted that*, etc.

Error 315. The economic reconstruction of a *tottered* peasantry.

*To totter* is intransitive, and therefore its past participle *tottered* cannot be used passively in this way. Use either the present participle (active), i.e. *tottering peasantry*, or else the passive past participle of a synonymous transitive, e.g. *ruined peasantry*.

(§§213-219). D. *Dual Construction Verbs*.

Here the mistake is due to not knowing the difference of meaning in the verb between its transitive construction (with direct object) and its intransitive (with prepositional object).

(§213).

Error 316. We judge a man as we *know about* him more and more.

The writer evidently meant 'intimate knowledge', which is *know him* i.e. transitive. *Know* also requires an adverb of quality, not of degree (*more*), therefore *better* and *better*. (The error may, otherwise, be one of Word-order only and need correction thus:—*as we know more and more about him*.)



Error 317. Mrs. B. *enquires* for the reason of her coming earlier than usual.

Error 318. To *enquire* of their truth.

With inanimate objects, like the above, *enquire* (transitive) is required (= 'asks'), hence *enquires the reason* and to *enquire the truth*. *Enquire of* and *for* both require a personal object, the former meaning 'ask questions of', and the latter 'make enquiries about'.

Error 319. When a parent *asks* his boy to be admitted into a school.

Here the intransitive construction—*asks for his boy to be admitted*, etc.—is required, meaning 'desires'. The transitive *asks* means 'makes enquiries of', which is not meant.

(§217).

Error 320. Japan *presents* us a striking instance of the value of renunciation.

This other kind of dual construction verb takes, in this case, the direct object *us* and the prepositional object *with a striking instance*, not a direct and an indirect object as the writer has wrongly supposed.

Error 321. The great strength of our people is that of *looking at* things straight in the face.

*Look* can act as a dual construction verb in one case, viz., with the phrase *in the face* (or *eyes*) as prepositional object. But then the other object must be direct, viz., *looking things straight in the face*.

## EXERCISES ON CHAPTER X

### TRANSITIVITY

Verbs in all the following sentences show mistakes in Transitivity. Correct the errors and say, in each case, to what group (i.e. verbs of 'saying', transitive with omitted object, etc.) each verb belongs:—

1. Mr. Gokhale warned that the advocacy of wrong methods tended to divert attention from the right methods.

## WRITTEN ENGLISH

2. The procession reached near the Kotwali.
3. We assure of this.
4. He will try to keep himself away from bad company.
5. Talk what we may, it will come to the same thing in the end.
6. When relief lies in our own hands we have to exert.
7. This is a locality where young students frequent.
8. 'Of course, I will,' assured the Begum.
9. I beg to apply myself for this position.
10. Why unnecessarily talk unpleasant things?
11. I graduated myself three years ago.
12. He requested the audience to vindicate their honour by enlisting themselves as volunteers.
13. There are those who wish to dissociate from Government altogether.
14. Villagers ran into lanes and closed themselves in their houses.
15. We have enough to speak on the subject but refrain.
16. He went to Poona to enjoy.
17. He told that the lesson was too difficult.
18. The writer addresses in the following strain.
19. Northerners have to exert in order to create heat in them, while Southerners work reposefully.
20. This school shortly developed itself into a regular girls' school.
21. This is the kind of taunt which Carlyle thought it fit to indulge himself in.

## TEST PAPERS 10—(TRANSITIVITY)

## 10 A

- (1) What is meant by 'transitivity' in a verb? Compose three sentences of your own containing verbs always transitive, and three more containing verbs always intransitive.
- (2) Name the seven classes of verbs usually transitive but which may be used intransitively, and give one example of each in sentences of your own composition.



10 B

(3) There are two types of Dual Construction Verbs. Explain, and illustrate with examples of your own, each of these types.

(4) The verbs in the following sentences are normal transitives mistakenly used as intransitives. Correct them by substituting, in each case, an intransitive verb of the same meaning :—

1. The diminution in numbers menaces to go still further.
2. The spirit again visited, and warned her of danger.
3. This proposal initiates with some ardent students.
4. The dying man ordered to have all his wealth brought.
5. Two or three years after she missed, he received a letter from her.
6. The chief military officer actually mistook the water-boilers of the camp for big guns, and enquired with some anxiety.
7. We wonder from whose fertile brain the idea of this Association must have born !

10 C

(5) The following sentences contain errors with reflexive and reciprocal verbs. Correct them and also make a brief list, at the end, of English verbs which may omit a reflexive object :—

1. Students should keep themselves aloof from politics.
2. I will avail of this opportunity.
3. We must exert to the utmost to save our Society from wrecking.
4. He lags himself behind and does not effort.
5. The author avows to have been a follower of Swami Vivekanand.
6. This poet is sometimes found to attach to the materialistic tendencies of his age.
7. Feeling myself lonely, I went to visit some people from my country.

8. One must adapt to local circumstances.
9. Government has safeguarded against the deterioration of reserve forests.
10. When their errors are found out they get themselves improved.
11. People will indulge themselves in intoxication.
12. They would rejoice to see Providence coming to their aid with an early monsoon directing to exert the Satyagrahis in less distressing activities.
13. However these aspects may differ, in one respect they resemble.

(6) Set right the following sentences, explaining, in each case, what mistake has been made:—

1. It is not possible for us to do justice to all the speeches made, and we shall only pass in review of them here.
2. Mrs. Besant herself, did she re-incarnate in India, would be what?
3. Unintelligible to the West must strike this complex story of intrigue.
4. The Government will then be compelled to arrest, which at present they seem to avoid.

(7) The following are sentences containing verbs always intransitive, yet wrongly used transitively. Correct them by substituting transitive verbs of the same meaning:—

1. A few witnesses said that the despatch rider was also trampled.
2. This is a superstition which has degenerated many of our nation.
3. Tippu's mother remonstrated with her son on his folly, and desisted him from proceeding further in the matter.
4. He must ask himself whither the Ship of State is being drifted.
5. Now and then the conduct of reactionaries gives the lie to what they talk.



6. The Homes emigrated to Canada last month their first party of 300 children.

7. Great are the rivers which debouch their contents into the Indian Ocean.

### *Prepositions*

§221. The word preposition (Lat. *præ* 'before' and *positio* 'placing') means no more than a word 'placed before' another or others, viz., its object. To get a proper idea of a preposition we must go further than this meaning and look at its uses.

#### USES OF A PREPOSITION.

§222. In the sentence.

He is a man *of strong will and purpose.*

we say that *of* is a preposition and that it governs *strong will and purpose*, which is its object. But the whole phrase *of strong will and purpose* expresses an attribute of the *man* and is therefore used adjectivally. We therefore call *of strong will and purpose* an attributive adjunct (see Chapter 15) and can say that the preposition *of* makes here a Prepositional Adjunct *of strong will and purpose* which is Attributive to the noun *man*.

Similarly, in the sentence

He looked *in every direction.*

the preposition *in* governs *direction*, its noun-object. But here the phrase *in every direction* tells us where he looked and is therefore adverbial in character and is called an adverb adjunct. So we can say that *in* makes a Prepositional Adjunct *in every direction* which is Adverbial to the verb *looked*.

Finally, in the sentence

He looked *at his watch.*

the preposition *at* governs the noun *watch* as its object. But *at* also carries the action in the intransitive verb *look* across to the word *watch*. Thus, *at his watch* may be called the Prepositional Object of the verb *looked*.

§223. These are the main purposes of a preposition, and we may summarise by saying that a preposition and its object may make :—

(1) Prepositional Adjuncts which are either Attributive (i.e., adjectival) to a noun, e.g., He is a man *of strong will and purpose*, or Adverbial to a verb, e.g. :—He looked *in every direction*.

(2) Prepositional Objects to a verb, e.g. :—He looked *at his watch*.

#### KINDS OF OBJECTS TO PREPOSITIONS.

§224. In the sentences above the prepositions *of*, *in* and *at* take as objects only nouns, viz., *will* and *purpose*, *direction* and *watch*. Prepositions can, however, take also other kinds of objects besides nouns.

In the sentences

I am grateful *for that*.

I don't care *for going out* at night.

the preposition *for* takes a pronoun *that* and a gerund *going out* as objects. Pronouns and gerunds resemble nouns in many ways and may be called 'noun-equivalents', so that prepositions may be said to take also noun-equivalents (pronouns and gerunds) as objects.

Again, in the sentences

He came *from over there*.

I did not know that *till now*.

He called to me *from inside the house*.

the prepositions *from* and *till* take as objects the adverb of place *there*, the adverb of time *now* and the



adverb adjunct with a preposition *inside the house*. These can also be added to the number of possible objects of a preposition.

Finally, in the sentences

He gave us an account of *what he had seen*.

He has given us no idea of *where he is staying*.

the preposition *of* takes as objects two noun-clauses, viz., *what he had seen*, which is a reported interrogative, and *where he is staying*, which is relative to an unexpressed noun-antecedent such as *hotel* (i.e., *the hotel where he is staying*).

§225. Prepositions, then, may take any of the following Objects :—

(1) Nouns, e.g. :—

He looked in every *direction*.

He looked at his *watch*.

(2) Noun-equivalents, i.e., pronouns and gerunds, e.g. :—

I am grateful for *that*.

I don't care for *going out* at night.

(3) Adverbs

(a) of Place, e.g. :—

He came from *over there*.

(b) of Time, e.g. :—

I did not know that till *now*.

(c) Adverbs Adjuncts with a preposition, e.g. :—

He called to me from *inside the house*.

(4) Noun-Clauses

(a) Interrogative, e.g. :—

He gave us an account of *what he had seen*.

(b) Relative, e.g. :—

He has given us no idea of *where he is staying*.

## HEADWORDS TO PREPOSITIONS.

§226. A preposition not only governs its object, which generally follows it immediately, but itself depends on a word preceding it which is called its headword.

For instance, in the sentences given above, viz. :—

I don't *care for* going out at night.

I am *grateful for* that.

He gave us an *account of* what he had seen.

the preposition *for* depends on a headword *care* in the first sentence, and on a headword *grateful* in the second, and the preposition *of* depends on a headword *account* in the third sentence. In fact, prepositions act as a special kind of connecting link between their headwords and their objects.

These headwords—*care*, *grateful* and *account*—are, respectively, a verb, an adjective and a noun.

Headwords to prepositions, therefore, may be either Verbs, Adjectives, or Nouns.

## ATTACHMENT OF PREPOSITIONS TO HEADWORDS.

§227. It may be agreed that a preposition is attached to its object, but is it really attached to its headword?

This can be tested by reference to sentences such as the following :—

He has many things to be *thankful for*.

Children should never be *laughed at*.

What did he give an *account of*?

Here the preposition *for* is evidently attached to its headword *thankful*, *at* to *laughed* and *of* to *account*.

This attachment between headword and preposition is so close in the case of certain intransitive verbs and their prepositions, e.g. :—*to laugh at*, *to think of*, *to care for*, etc., that such may be regarded as verb+preposition groups.



Note that these verb+preposition groups are quite distinct from verb+adverb compounds (§§195-204), because, while verb+adverb compounds will allow an object (generally a pronoun) to intervene between verb and adverb (e.g., *Put your boots on*), the verb+preposition group will, of course, not (*Think of your future*).

### CHOICE OF A PREPOSITION.

§228. In general, the choice of the right preposition to use in any given case depends on the meaning of the preposition. But a preposition may have many meanings, some quite different from others, and this makes a right choice more difficult. We shall see also, when considering meanings of prepositions (§§233-238), that each meaning of a preposition connects it with certain headwords (sometimes also with certain kinds of objects), so that the choice of a preposition depends, to some extent also, on the headword and objects which it is used to connect.

### KINDS OF VERB-HEADWORDS TO PREPOSITIONS.

§229. Verbs are much more commonly used than adjectives or nouns as headwords to prepositions. The use of a preposition with a verb-headword, however, depends on the amount of transitivity with which the verb is used.

We must, therefore, look more carefully at the kinds of verbs (according to transitivity) which may have prepositions following them. We will examine them in the order Transitive, Intransitive, and Dual Construction Verbs.

#### §230. (1) *Transitive Verbs.*

Verbs used transitively take, of course, no preposition before their direct object or before their indirect

object, if they have one, e.g. :—

Jivan has sent *his father* (Ind. Obj.) *a present* (Dir. Obj.).

Verbs that can take an Indirect Object can substitute for the indirect object a prepositional adjunct with *to* or *for* after the Direct Object, i.e. :—

Jivan has sent a present *to his father*.

Other verbs used transitively can take, besides their direct object, a prepositional adjunct with a great variety of possible prepositions, e.g., in :—

They have acquitted him *of the charge*.

He threw a stone *at the dog*.

You can infer his guilt *from his behaviour*.

the transitive verb *acquitted* takes here a prepositional adjunct (*of the charge*) with *of*, *threw* takes one (*at the dog*) with *at*, and *infer* takes one (*from his behaviour*) with *from*. These prepositions are, in each case, conditioned by, i.e., chosen for, their meaning.

A danger here presents itself, viz., with regard to transitive verbs which can omit their object, e.g., in the sentences :—

He *pointed at* the door.

The child *hid from* his father.

the verbs *pointed* and *hid* might be mistaken for intransitive verbs taking prepositional objects (viz., *at the door*, *from his father*, see Intransitive Verbs, below). But actually *pointed* has omitted its expected object (*his finger*) and *hid* has omitted its reflexive object (*himself*), and are used transitively with omitted object so that *at the door* and *from his father* are really prepositional adjuncts, and the prepositions used (*at*, *from*) are chosen for, i.e., conditioned by, their meaning.



## (2) *Intransitive Verbs.*

§231. Intransitive verbs are very commonly followed by prepositions, which, in turn, have an object following them. This object is called the Prepositional Object to the verb. Thus, in :—

*I don't care for him.*

*Look at that man over there.*

the intransitive verb *care* is followed by the preposition *for* and is said to take the prepositional object *for him*, while the intransitive verb *look* is followed by the preposition *at* and takes the prepositional object *at that man*.

This is the most valuable use of a preposition, viz., that it enables an intransitive verb, which cannot take an object directly, to take another kind of object by means of a preposition.

## (3) *Dual Construction Verbs*

§232. These have been fully examined under Transitivity (§§213-217).

### MEANINGS OF PREPOSITIONS.

§233. This is dictionary work, not strictly the business of a grammar. However, it is useful to grammar also to give here a few directions as a guide to the uses of prepositions according to their meanings.

The more commonly a preposition is used, the more meanings does it develop. Thus, according to the great *Oxford New English Dictionary*, the preposition *to* has eight principal meanings and over 60 varieties of use in governing nouns or noun-equivalents, while four more principal meanings and over 40 varieties of use must be added to these when it

governs an infinitive. The other common prepositions—*of*, *for* and *with*—have no less abundant and complicated meanings and uses.

This seems to make the choice of a preposition according to meaning very difficult in English, but some explanation and guidance will show that it is not so difficult as it looks.

§234. First, the meaning of a preposition may either (a) refer to place or time, i.e., be Local or Temporal, or (b) not refer to place or time, i.e., be Non-Local and Non-Temporal.

Second, the meaning of a preposition may be (1) Primary, or (2) Derived. The derived meanings are those developed out of the primary literal meaning or meanings.

§235. To illustrate the variety and development of meanings of a preposition and their uses it is best to begin with one of the less common prepositions. We select two, viz., *after* and *against*.

*After* has a local and temporal meaning but no literal non-local and non-temporal. It has three main metaphorical meanings derived from the local and temporal one.

(1) Primary local and temporal meaning = 'position behind' :—

The train arrives *after* six o'clock (Adverb Adjunct).  
(with personal objects *after* is replaced by *behind*, i.e.  
He came *behind* me.)

(2) A first derived local meaning = 'in pursuit of', since position behind suggests pursuit :—

(Verb)

It's funny to see a man *running after* his hat  
(Literal).



He *aspires* now *after* yet higher honours  
(Metaphorical).

(Adj.)

It is well to be *eager after* success (Metaphorical).

(Noun)

The keepers had a great *chase after* the convict  
(Lit.).

We have made *enquiry after* him without  
success (Met.).

Further examples of headwords used with *after* in this meaning are :—

Verbs :—*to hanker, hunger, inquire, long, lust, search, seek, sorrow, thirst.*

Adj. :—*mad.*

Nouns :—*aspiration, longing, race, search.*

(3) A second derived meaning = 'with attention to', from an attendant standing behind his master :—

(Verb) He knows how to *look after* his own interests  
(Met.).

Further headword :—(Verb) *to see.*

(4) A third derived meaning = 'in imitation of', from the idea of following behind :—

(Verb) This boy *takes after* his father in looks.

(Adj.) He was *named after* a famous general.

§ 236. *Against* has a local and temporal meaning but no non-local and non-temporal. Three main derived meanings are in common use.

(1) Primary local and temporal meaning = 'position facing or with one's back to', 'time approaching' a certain limit :—

(Verb) *Stand against* the door and be measured.

(The temporal sense is now obsolete, e.g. in older English :—Be *ready against* his coming.)

(2) Derived = 'physical contact or collision', following on a position facing :—

(Verb) The ship *struck against* a rock and went down.  
Further headwords :—(Vbs.) *to bump, jostle, knock, lean.*

(3) Derived = 'opposition, physical or mental', i.e., a metaphorical position facing :—

(Vb. Intrans.) Orators often *inveigh against* abuses.

(Vb. Trans., omitted obj.) You must *guard against* cold.

(Vb. Trans., with Adv., Adj.) He has *pitted himself against* a strong adversary.

(Adjective) I'm afraid you're *prejudiced against* him.

(Noun) There is no *remedy against* jealousy.

Further headwords :—

(Vbs. intrans.) :—*to complain, contend, murmur, plot, prevail, proceed, protest, rail, rebel, remonstrate, revolt, stand, strive, struggle, tell, testify, trespass, vote, work.*

(Vbs. trans., omitted object) :—*to argue, decide, inform, kick, play, prepare, provide.*

(Vbs. trans., with adverb adjunct) :—*to arm, caution, dissuade, prejudice, protect, warn.*

(Vbs., dual construction) :—*to fight, offend.*

(Adjs.) :—*Indignant, irritated.*

(Nouns) :—*antipathy, complaint, decision, spite, and many others derived from verbs above.*

(4) Derived = result of successful opposition :—

(Adj.) He was *proof against* all her wiles.

Further headwords :—

(Adjs.) :—*safe, secure.*

(Nouns) :—*safety, security.*

§237. After these comparatively simple illustrations of prepositions and their meanings and uses, we proceed to one of the commonest prepositions, which has



many meanings and uses, viz., *of*. *Of* may stand as an example of, and a guide to, the use of the common prepositions, such as *for*, *from*, *in*, *on*, *to* and *with*.

*Of* has both local-temporal and also non-local and non-temporal meanings. We designate the local-temporal as coming under *of*<sup>1</sup>, and the non-local and non-temporal as coming under *of*<sup>2</sup>. (Note, similarly, *for*<sup>1</sup> and *for*<sup>2</sup>, *to*<sup>1</sup> and *to*<sup>2</sup>, *with*<sup>1</sup> and *with*<sup>2</sup>.)

*Of*<sup>1</sup>

§238. (1) First primary meaning = 'from', that is departure from a point of position or time.

This meaning has died out in its literal form. With regard to time and place the meaning has shifted to one of position instead of departure, and this meaning is shown under (2) below. From *of* = 'from', however, has been developed a metaphorical use = 'from an origin or cause', which is fairly common after verbs, and also found after some adjectives and nouns.

(Verb Intrans.)

Water *consists of* oxygen and hydrogen (i.e. 'oxygen and hydrogen are the causes of water').

He *died of* malaria.

(Verb Trans., with omitted obj.)

If you lose your way, *enquire of* the policeman.

(Verb Trans. with adv. adjt.)

(i) (Person of thing) Let me *relieve you of* your coat.

(ii) (Thing of person) He *begged a copper of* me.

(iii) (Thing of thing) She *emptied the pail of its* contents.

(Adjective) What is the *good of* talking like that?

(Noun) The room was *bare of* all furniture.

Further headwords:—

Verbs Intrans.:—*to become, come, recover.*

Verbs Trans., with Adv. Adjt. :—

(Person of thing):—*to absolve, bereave, break, cheat, clear, cure, defraud, denude, deprive, disburden* (reflexive), *dispossess, divest* (refl.), *exonerate, heal, lighten, rid, rob, strip.*

(Thing of person):—*to ask, borrow, buy, clear, demand, exact, expect, request, require.*

(Thing of thing):—*to clear, compose, empty, make.*

Adjectives:—*bare, bereft, born, bought* (and other past participles), *clear, composed, destitute, ill, quit, sick.*

Nouns:—*consequence, nuisance, result, (to take) leave.*

(2) Second primary meaning = 'in', since the idea of movement in *of* has changed to one of position.

(Adv. Adjt.) I knew him *of old* (i.e. in old days).

(Adjective) The beggar was *blind of* one eye.

(Noun) There is no *difference of* meaning between the two words.

Further headwords :—

Adjectives:—*defeated (of purpose), dull (of hearing), easy, lame, quick, short (of money).*

Nouns:—*freedom (of speech), knack (of with gerund).*

Also Adverb Adjuncts:—*of yore, of recent years, of a long time, of Sundays.*

*Of*<sup>2</sup>

(1) A first use is genitival, expressing state, which may be either (a) partitive, or (b) possessive.

(a) *Partitive.*

(Vb. Intrans.) All men *partake of* one nature.

(Adjective) The *best of* the joke was that it was true.

(Noun) There was an *abundance of* good things to eat.



Further headwords:—

Adjective:—*worst*.

Nouns:—*amount, deal, quantity, piece, portion, fragment, etc.*

(b) *Possessive*.

This *of*<sup>2</sup> construction is regular when the 'possessor' is inanimate and is found only when the headword is a noun or noun-equivalent.

I put the clothes on the top shelf *of the cupboard* (inanimate, concrete).

We are all pleased at the success *of his efforts* (inanimate, abstract).

I do not see the purpose *of his coming* (noun-equivalent, i.e., gerund).

Further headwords are any words representing things which may be possessed by the noun governed by *of*.

(c) *Transitive*.

This use of *of* is exceedingly valuable and important, especially with noun-headwords. With verbs it is not common, being used mainly with verbs of dual construction and verbs expressing sense-impressions. The adjective-headwords that use it are commoner but still not very numerous. With noun-headwords it is the regular method of showing that the noun-headword 'governs' the word or words coming after the *of*, and these noun-headwords are such as would represent a verb in a parallel construction with that verb. Thus, the noun *invasion* represents the verb *invaded* in:—

The *invasion of Britain* by Julius Cæsar in 55 B.C. =  
Julius Cæsar *invaded Britain* in 55 B.C.

(Verb, dual construction):—This problem *admits of* more than one solution.

(Adjective):—He wrote a long letter *descriptive* of his travels.

(Noun):—She showed great *admiration* of his courage.

Further headwords:—

Verbs of dual construction:—*to accept, allow, approve, boast, conceive, disapprove, drink, hear, judge, know, permit, speak, talk, tell, think, treat.*

Verbs of sense-impressions:—*to savour, smack, smell, taste.*

Adjectives:—*covetous, deserving, desirous, distrustful, doubtful, envious, exclusive, fearful, forgetful, heedful, heedless, illustrative, imitative, inclusive, irrespective, mindful, neglectful, productive, reckless, reminiscent.*

Nouns:—*abhorrence, acceptance, admission, approval, choice, command, conception, confusion, consideration* (and many others in *-tion*), *contempt, copy, cure, decision* (and many others in *-al, -ance, -ence, -sion*), *desire, envy, experience, fear, hope, judge, judgment, love, need, neglect, note, notice, pity, proof, regard, respect, scorn, search, settlement, share, sight, smell, taste, treatment, use, view, want, witness.*

(d) Of = 'concerning', 'with regard to'. This use is really a special case of transitive *of*, but the preposition has the meaning and often the use of the French preposition *de*. Thus most of its headwords are of French or Latin origin.

The verb-headwords consist of a few intransitives and many more transitives, the latter taking an *of*-adjunct with the meaning of 'concerning'.

(Vb. Intrans.) What has *become* of all his hopes?  
(Vb. Trans. with of-adjt.) They have *accused* him of negligence.

(Adjective) He is *intolerant* of interference.

(Noun) There have been *suspensions* of foul play.



Further headwords:—

Verbs Intransitive:—*to beware, boast, brag, complain, despair, dream, repent.*

Verbs Transitive with *of*-adjunct:—

- (i) verbs of 'accusing':—*to acquit, convict, impeach.*
- (ii) verbs of 'relating and believing':—*to assure, believe, convince, inform, persuade, relate, remind, report, satisfy, warn.*
- (iii) some reflexive verbs:—*to avail oneself, to be-think oneself.*
- (iv) other verbs:—*to disappoint, suspect.*

Adjectives:—*afraid, ambitious, ashamed, avid, aware, careful, careless, certain, confident, conscious, culpable, devoid, disappointed, economical, fond, full, glad, greedy, guilty, ignorant, impatient, incredulous, independent, innocent, insensible, jealous, negligent, nervous, oblivious, patient, prodigal, profuse, proud, sanguine, satisfied, sensible, shy, solicitous, sure, tender, true, vain, weary.*

Nouns:—

- (i) from verbs of 'accusing':—*accusation, acquittal, conviction, impeachment.*
- (ii) from verbs of 'relating and believing':—*assurance, information, relation, reminder, report, warning.*
- (iii) from adjectives:—*certainty, consciousness, ignorance, impatience, independence, innocence, intolerance, jealousy, negligence, nervousness, obliviousness, sureness.*
- (iv) parallel to French or Latin construction with *de*: *charge, disgust, evidence, idea, ideal, motion, sense.*
- (v) by analogy with those in (iv):—*care, pride, inkling.*

(e) *Appositional Of*. After noun-headwords only, *of* sometimes acts as an almost meaningless link

between headword and object. Thus, in the phrase *The city of London*, *of* shows only that *city* and *London* are the same place, so that here *of* means no more than = or viz., *the city* (which is, or =, or viz.,) *London*. The headword and object are thus put in apposition to each other by *of*.

This appositional use of *of* is regular after two kinds of noun-headwords, viz. :—

- (i) Geographical names :—*the State of Wisconsin, the continent of Europe, the island of Bali.*
- (ii) Certain nouns, such as *fact, circumstance, affair, action, matter, etc.*

Examples of (ii) are :—

*The fact (or circumstance) of his not being present* (i.e., viz. *that he was not present*, which is an appositional clause) *was not noticed.*

*She brought an action of breach of promise* (i.e. an action, viz., breach of promise).

*They have considered the matter of his debts* (i.e. the matter, viz., his debts).

*What a giant of a dog you've got there !* (i.e. a dog which is a giant).

Some others of the chief prepositions and their uses and headwords for each use will be found in the Appendix on Prepositions.

#### HEADWORD-GROUPS WITH ONE PREPOSITION.

§239. It is helpful to know that a noun or adjective which is derived from a verb or is made from the same root as that verb (i.e. is cognate with it) generally uses the same preposition as the verb. These associated words thus make headword-groups, all the words



of a group taking the same preposition. Examples of these groups with their prepositions are:—

(i) *Verb and Noun.*

*For.*

*To allow for, allowance for.  
To prepare for, preparation for.  
To hunt for, a hunt for.*

*From.*

*To reduce from, reduction from.*

*In.*

*To believe in, belief in.  
To indulge in, indulgence in.*

*Of.*

*To approve of, approval of.  
To know of, knowledge of.*

*To.*

*To accede to, access to.  
To allude to, allusion to.  
To testify to, testimony to.*

*With.*

*To agree with, agreement with.  
To comply with, compliance with.*

(ii) *Verb and Adjective.*

*For.*

*To account for, accountable for.*

*To.*

*To answer to, answerable to.  
To conduce to, conducive to.*

(iii) *Noun and Adjective.*

*For.*

*Eligible for, eligibility for.*

*Of.*

*Ignorant of, ignorance of.  
Emblem of, emblematic of.  
Jealous of, jealousy of.*

*To.*

*Analogy to, analogous to.*

*Detriment to, detrimental to.*

*Impervious to, imperviousness to.*

*With.*

*Compatible with, compatibility with.*

(iv) *Verb, Adjective and Noun.*

*To.*

*To appropriate to, appropriate to, appropriation to.*

§240. But note that this parallelism of construction does not always take place. Sometimes a different preposition is used by noun or adjective from that used by the verb of similar origin. Here are a few examples:—

(i) *Verb and Noun.*

*To confess to, a confession of.*

*To hope for, a hope of.*

*To rebel against, a rebel to.*

(ii) *Verb and Adjective.*

*To consist of (or in), consistent with.* (Here the verb and adjective have however, different meanings.)

(iii) *Noun and Adjective.*

*Apt at, aptitude for.*

*Disgust for, disgusted at or with.*

*Pleased with, pleasure in.*

*Consequent on, in consequence of.*

*Lack of, lacking in.*

*Note of, noted for.*

*Synonym for, synonymous with.*

(iv) *Verb, Adjective and Noun.*

*To pride oneself on, proud of, pride in.*



# HEADWORDS WITH MORE THAN ONE PREPOSITION.

§241. A headword may take more than one preposition. This is due either (1) to two prepositions having the same meaning as each other, i.e. being synonymous, in which case it does not matter which preposition is used, or (2) to (a) the objects of the two prepositions being of different kinds or (b) the headword having different meanings which require different prepositions, and in both of these cases it does matter which preposition is used. These cases must now be further considered.

## §242. (1) *Synonymous Prepositions.*

Since every preposition has more than one meaning, it happens sometimes that one of the meanings of one preposition is identical with one meaning of another preposition. In such cases either preposition can be used. Examples of such pairs of prepositions are the following:—

*On—Upon.* This pair is always synonymous. *Upon* is simply a stronger form of *on* and is used for greater emphasis, so that all headwords using *on* use also *upon* when more emphasis is required.

*After (2)—For<sup>2</sup> (1 and 2).* *After* suggesting mental and emotional pursuit falls together in meaning with *for<sup>2</sup>* suggesting the aim or tendency of feelings or action. So one can equally well say *aspire after* or *for*, *enquire after* or *for*, *sorrow after* or *for*, and similarly all the verb-headwords under *after (2)* will be found again under *for<sup>2</sup> (1 and 2)*. The same applies to the adjective- and noun-headwords under these heads, and *eager after* or *for*, *chase after* or *for* are equally good.

*Against (3)—With<sup>2</sup>.* *With* suggesting opposition of course falls together with *against*, and some verb-

headwords—notably *argue*, *compete*, *fight*, *prevail*, *strive*, *struggle*, *war*—can be used equally with either. Note, however, that this freedom is limited, and that the other headwords—i.e., *bargain*, *close*, *differ*, etc., take only *with* in this sense, and *complain*, *inform*, *kick*, etc. take only *against*. The adjectives *indignant* and *irritated* may take either.

*At*<sup>1</sup> (4)—*About*<sup>2</sup> (2). *At* suggesting a physical or mental state with regard to an object falls together with *about*<sup>2</sup> suggesting physical or mental disturbance or reaction, and the adjectives under *at*<sup>1</sup> (4), except *aghast*, can all be used equally with *about* and so can some verbs (e.g., *chuckle*, *grumble*, *hesitate*, *jest*, *laugh*, *murmur*, *rail*, *rejoice*, *wonder*) and nouns (e.g., *amusement*, *anger*, etc.) which express similar states of mind.

*From*<sup>1</sup> (2)—*Of*<sup>1</sup> (1). Since this original meaning of *of* is 'from', it falls together with *from* to some extent, and the intransitive verb-headwords with omitted object, at least, (viz. *beg*, *borrow*, *buy*, *enquire*) can be equally used with either.

*About*<sup>2</sup>—*Of*<sup>2</sup> (1). These both mean 'concerning', and some verbs and adjectives can be used equally with either, notably the dual construction verbs (e.g., *judge*, *know*, *speak*, *tell*, *think*), the transitive verbs expressing 'relation and belief' (e.g., *assure*, *believe*, *convince*, *inform*, *persuade*, *relate*, *remind*, *report*, *satisfy* and *warn*) and their derived nouns (*assurance*, *information*, etc.) and nearly all the adjectives under *of*<sup>2</sup> (3b) (e.g., *afraid*, *ambitious*, *careful*, *confident*, etc.). Note, however, that nearly all the remaining verbs and nouns under these headwords, as well as the adjectives under *about* which are not under *of*<sup>2</sup> (3b) (e.g., *agitated*, *alarmed*, *amused*, etc.) have not this



choice of preposition but must be used with the preposition under which they are given.

*By*<sup>2</sup> (1)—*With*<sup>2</sup> (2). *By* expressing agency and *with* expressing instrumentality sometimes fall together in meaning when the headword can be thought of as either an agent or an instrument. For instance, past participles denoting a state of mind can be thought of as either, e.g.—‘Everyone must be *impressed by* (or *with*) the perfection of modern machinery’, and this is true also of such past participles as *afflicted, beset, confronted, disgusted, faced, honoured, inspired, inundated, permeated*, etc. But, when agency can be distinguished from instrumentality, then *by* and *with* cannot be substituted for each other, e.g.—*I was struck with the notion* means ‘the notion occurred to my mind’, while *I was struck by the notion* means ‘the notion impressed me’; *I was taken with him* means ‘I liked him’, while *I was taken by him to his house* expresses the literal sense of *take*.

It is to be noted that, while some of the above pairs belong to the same class, i.e., are both either local and temporal or non-local and non-temporal (*against*—*with*<sup>1</sup>), others belong one to one class, the other to the other (*at*<sup>1</sup>—*about*<sup>2</sup>). In this latter case there is a struggle going on between prepositions expressing localism and prepositions expressing a non-local or metaphorical sense, and this struggle can be traced through a great deal of the usage of English prepositions. So we can say either *grieve over* or *for*, *prefer someone before* or *someone to*, *superiority over* or *to*, *averse from* or *to*. The general tendency is to use the local preposition, which expresses a clear relationship, in preference to the non-local, which has largely lost its meaning.

§243. (2a) *Different Objects.*

A headword must sometimes vary its preposition according to the kind of object which is to follow, i.e., (i) whether the object is an infinitive or a noun, or (ii) if the object is a noun, whether it represents a person or a thing.

(i) We say that a problem is *easy of solution* (noun) but *easy to solve* (infinitive); that a boy is *anxious for success* (noun) but *anxious to succeed* (infinitive) or that he will *fail in his examination* (noun) or in *satisfying his examiners* (gerund) but *fail to satisfy his examiners* (infinitive); that *six men will suffice for the purpose* (noun) but *suffice to carry the load* (infinitive). Further examples under this head are certain verbs, adjectives and nouns under the pairs of prepositions *for*<sup>2</sup> (1)—*to*<sup>1</sup> (e.g., *aspire, care, crave, grieve, hanker, hope, hunger, pine, thirst, wish, yearn; eager, impatient, sorry, thankful, zealous; ambition, demand, desire, etc.*) and *for*<sup>2</sup> (2)—*to*<sup>1</sup> (e.g., *appeal, apply, ask, etc.; competent, destined, etc.; ability, aptitude, etc.*). This difference of construction before different objects shows before an infinitive- or a gerund-object, so that one may *aim to succeed*, but also *aim at succeeding*, or *may have the honour to meet* but also *of meeting*, or *have a reason to dislike* a person or *for disliking* a person.

(ii) A distinction, again, is made between person- and thing-objects when we say that *a man is only responsible to himself* (person) *for his acts* (thing), that *we pray to God* (person) *for guidance* (thing), that *a surgeon operates on a patient* (person) *with instruments* (thing), that *a father warns his son against low company* (person) but *of the dangers of gambling* (thing). Between thing and thing a distinction is



made when we say that *the audience was moved by the scene* (agent) *to tears* (result), or that *bread consists of flour, yeast and water* (material) but that *wisdom consists in true judgment and true action* (definition). Further headwords under this head are certain adjectives and nouns expressing passions under the pairs of prepositions at (4)—*with*<sup>2</sup> (2) (e.g., *angry, afflicted, amused, annoyed, busy, disappointed, dissatisfied, piqued, pleased, vexed; anger, indignation, vexation*) since one is *angry with* a person but *angry at* a thing, and some verbs and nouns under *for*<sup>2</sup> (2)—*into* (e.g., *enter, enquire, look, play, run, rush, search; entrance, enquiry*) since one may *enter for* a race but one must *enter into* an agreement, *look for* a missing book but *look into* a disputed matter.

§244.(2b) *Different Meanings of the Headword.*

It is natural that, when a headword has various meanings—literal and metaphorical—it should be capable of taking various prepositions, one preposition to suit one meaning and another to suit another. Thus, when the adjective *free* means 'clear, untouched', it takes *from*, as in *free from partiality*, but when it means 'generous, prodigal' it takes *with*, as in *free with his money*.

A great many examples of this variety of usage can be collected by the student himself from the lists of headwords given above or in the appendix. A few more—from the verbs this time—may assist him in this search, viz.—

*Treat for, to:—*

A doctor *treats* a patient (i.e. gives medical attention to a patient) *for* a disease.

A boy *treats* his friends *to* oyster patties (i.e. gives them oyster patties as a special pleasure).

*Start for, at:—*

A train *starts* (leaves) *for* Poona in half an hour.

She is so nervous, she *starts* (moves in a frightened manner) *at* the slightest noise.

*Trade with, upon:—*

India *trades* (does business) *with* Japan.

A handsome man may *trade upon* (make capital out of) his appearance.

*Stick to, at:—*

A man should *stick* (remain faithful) *to* his friends.

An unscrupulous fellow *sticks* (hesitates) *at* nothing.

*Take to, after:—*

I *took to* (felt a liking for) him at the first glance.

He *takes after* (resembles) his grandfather.

#### SPECIAL GRAMMATICAL USES OF SOME PREPOSITIONS.

§245. A few prepositions are used to form purely grammatical constructions in which the preposition has little or no meaning at all. These prepositions act as necessary links, and the constructions, though few, are important and the prepositions are among the commonest in English. They are *with*, *for*, *by* and *of*, and their grammatical uses will be here treated in that order.

*With* is regularly used to introduce an absolute participle (§147). For example, in the sentence:—

She stood there *with* tears streaming down her face. the preposition *with* introduces the participle *streaming* which, since it does not refer to any word in the main clause *she stood there*, is called an absolute participle. *With* has no separate meaning of its own here, but simply acts as a link in the grammatical construction.



Similarly, *with* can introduce other absolute adjuncts which have no participle in them. For instance, in :—

The team won, *with* its best man absent.  
*with* introduces the phrase *its best man absent*, which acts as an adverb, the whole phrase meaning 'although its best man was absent', but the phrase does not qualify any word in the main clause *the team won* and is, therefore, called an absolute adjunct. *With* is again meaningless but acts as a necessary link.

*For* has one valuable grammatical function, viz., to assist a noun or pronoun to become the subject of an infinitive. For instance, in :—

There was nothing else *for* us to do but follow our guide.

*for* makes it grammatically possible for the pronoun *us* to become the subject of the infinitive *to do*, yet *for* itself has no particular meaning.

*By* has a grammatical function which is one of the most important in English, yet it carries no meaning of its own in that function. This is the passive construction with a transitive verb. For example, when the sentence in the active voice :—

His Majesty the King opened Parliament yesterday.  
is turned into the corresponding passive :—

Parliament was opened yesterday *by* His Majesty the King.

*by* is employed necessarily in front of the subject (*His Majesty the King*) of the active construction in order to make it the agent of the passive, yet *by* is meaningless in itself.

*Of* has three purely grammatical uses in which its meaning has faded away to nothing. Of these uses

two, the Transitive and Appositional, have been treated above in §238, but a little more requires to be said of them and of the third use which has not yet been mentioned.

Transitive *of* may help either a noun or an adjective, which represents a transitive verb, to govern objects. For example:—

(Transitive verbs and Noun with *of*):—

The police constable *pursued* the thief.

The police constable went in *pursuit of* the thief.

I do not *remember* him.

I have no *remembrance of* him.

We did not *see* your brother.

We lost *sight of* your brother.

(Transitive verbs and Adjective with *of*):—

It is difficult to *tolerate* his habits.

It is difficult to be *tolerant of* his habits.

People often *suspect* their neighbours.

People are often *suspicious of* their neighbours.

Appositional *of* has a characteristic which makes it unique among English prepositions. This is that, whereas all other prepositions make their Object into an adjunct of the headword, appositional *of* makes its headword into an adjunct of its object. Thus, in quantities, weights, numbers and geographical names, viz.—

A pint *of* milk. A ton *of* coal. A dozen *of* eggs. The sea *of* Marmora.

it is the headword *pint* which qualifies the object *milk* and is therefore its adjunct, and likewise the headwords *ton*, *dozen* and *sea* are adjuncts of their objects *coal*, *eggs* and *Marmora*. This peculiarity of *of* is illustrated further by the fact that many nouns expressing a definite number (e.g., *dozen*, *score*, *half*, *hundred*, *thousand*, *million*, etc.) can be used as



simple adjectives (*a dozen eggs, a thousand men*) qualifying, and therefore subordinate to, the succeeding noun.

The third purely grammatical use of *of* is to intensify the meaning of the headword. For example, in the sentence—

For Shantilal the day *of* days, the day of his graduation, had arrived.

the phrase *the day of days* means 'the greatest day of all', and in

Shirin was sure in her *heart of hearts* that she was doing right.

the phrase *heart of hearts* means 'her innermost feelings', so that, in both phrases, *of* may be said to intensify the meaning of its headwords *day* and *heart* by linking them to their own plurals *days* and *hearts* in repetition.

#### ABSENCE OF THE PREPOSITION BEFORE CLAUSES.

§246. Sometimes, when a preposition is necessary before a noun-object, it may be omitted before a clause. Thus, while *of* is necessary after *careless* in :—

He was quite careless *of* his behaviour.

it disappears before the clause in :—

He was quite careless what he said before strangers. again, *for*, which is necessary before the pronoun in :—

I don't care *for* him.

disappears when a clause follows, as in :—

I don't care how it is done.

or, again, *at*, which is necessary in :—

Look *at* him!

is omitted before the clause in :—

Look where you're going!

This omission is becoming more and more frequent in conversation, and is apparently due to the feeling that the preposition is clumsy before a clause.

There is also an idiomatic use of certain nouns (e.g., *age, size, colour, use*) in which the preposition is omitted, viz. when these nouns are used as predicatives of description or characterisation, e.g.—

He's much the same *age* as you.

It's no *use* telling him that.

These books are nearly the same *size* and *colour*.

in all of, which sentences *of* has been omitted before *the same age, no use* and *the same size and colour*.

One may say in general, perhaps, that, especially in conversation, a preposition tends to get omitted in a sentence when it is unaccented and hurried over in the rhythm of speaking, e.g., *on* is omitted in such a phrase as *Are you coming Monday or Tuesday?*

#### (§§221-246). *Errors with Prepositions*

These are due mainly to either of two causes, viz., mistaking the meaning of the preposition or confusing the different prepositions which the same headword may take. Hence we shall examine them in the order (A) Meaning of Prepositions; (B) Headwords with more than one Preposition.

Then there are a few errors due to (C) Prepositions before a Clause, or to (D) Other Parts of Speech being mistaken for Prepositions.

#### (§§233-238). (A) *Meanings of Prepositions*.

These errors may occur either (1) in Adverb Adjuncts with a Preposition, or (2) after Headwords.

##### (§208). (1) *In Adverb Adjuncts with a Preposition*.

By such errors as these are meant mistakes in the meaning of a preposition in an adverbial phrase not depending on the meaning of a headword.



Occasionally the meaning of the preposition is obscure, and its use therefore difficult. Two examples of errors will illustrate this.

Error 322. The co-operative society in this country requires to be judged *by* its own merits and possibilities.

Here *by* is wrong. It makes a passive construction with *to be judged* and suggests that merits and possibilities judge the society. But they do not, and the construction is not a passive one with *judged* but an independent adverbial. We say *on its merits*, etc.

Error 323. Let the Hindu home be enlightened, and these evils will drop off *by* themselves.

*By themselves* means 'alone', 'separately'. But this is not the meaning desired. The writer means to say 'without assistance', and this is expressed by *of themselves*.

But such difficulties are not very common. Most errors in meaning are confusions of the kinds of possible adverb uses, viz., (a) Degree, (b) Manner, (c) Place, (d) Time, and of the possible prepositions to express these.

(a) *Adverbials of Degree.*

Error 324. The English nation is *by far and away* the strongest and best arbiter.

Here is a confusion of two adverbial constructions, viz. *by far* and *far and away*. Use one or the other, but do not mix them.

Error 325. Exchange falls for a few weeks, *to* the utmost for a few months.

*To* suggests motion, but here degree—which is more like place—is required. Write *at the utmost*.

(b) *Adverbials of Manner.*

Error 326. He shows it *by* such a vivid and pictorial way.

*By* suggests agent or instrument, but *way* cannot be either agent or instrument. Use *in*.

(c) *Adverbials of Place.*

Error 327. When *on* the point of death.

Error 328. Mr. M. was *on* the front and did valuable service.

Error 329. A country like India, where everything is now *in* a low ebb.

The preposition expressing a position near is *at*, and this should have been used in all three sentences above. It is true that we say also *on the point of*, but only in a construction where a gerund follows, e.g. *He was on the point of leaving for home.*

Error 330. Mr. J. carries a head *over* his shoulders.

Evidently an error due to translating the vernacular *upar*. But *over* means 'above and separated from'. Surely Mr. J.'s head is *on* his shoulders.

Error 331. She is carrying on our political work both *from* the press and *from* the platform.

*Press* means 'journals' and is a receptacle *in* which, while *platform* is a surface *on* which work is carried on.

Error 332. To speak good *on* his face.

This error, again, is due to translation from the vernacular. In English we think of the direction and say *to his face*.

Error 333. In the company *of* his favourite dog.

Here our phrase in English is without the article, i.e. *in company*, and company suggests *with*, therefore *in company with*.

(d) *Adverbials of Time.*

Error 334. *At the time of* departure they shook hands.

There is no need for this long phrase. *At* alone sufficiently expresses a point of time, therefore *At departure*, etc.

Error 335. *Since* 1842 Turner became Ruskin's master in all questions of art.

Error 336. It is now more than three weeks *after* the promulgation of these Ordinances.

Error 337. I know him *since* a long time.



*After* and *since* are often confused by Indian students. They both mark a period from a past date, but *after* marks it up to another point in the past—therefore *After 1842 Turner*, etc.—and *since* marks it up to the present moment of writing or speaking—therefore *It is now more than three weeks since*, etc. *Since* marks a date but does not cover the period following. This covering of a period is done by *for*, and the present tense must be exchanged for the perfect to express a period from past to present, hence *I have known him for a long time*.

Error 338. All parcels should be sent prepaid and *within* the 1st of December.

*Within* goes with a limited period, not date, of time. A limited date in the future is expressed by *by*, hence *by the 1st of December*.

## (2) *After Headwords.*

The choice of a preposition depending on a headword depends on the meaning of the headword as well as of the preposition. Sometimes the object also, whether animate or inanimate, controls the choice of the preposition.

Error 339. He received his friend politely and passed many witty remarks *on* him.

To *pass remarks* is impolite, but if 'he' did so, then he passed remarks *about* his friend. We pass remarks *about* a person, and *on* or *about* a thing. It is true that we remark *on* a thing, but there *remark* is a verb, not a noun as here.

Error 340. The conclusion *to* which I have arrived. Arrival suggests a place *at* which one stops, not a direction *to*, hence *at which*, etc.

Error 341. Boots and shoes made *in* the best English firms.

Error 342. I bind myself *with* your rules and regulations.

*By* is required in both these errors. Firms are not places like shops, *in* which boots are found, but manufacturers *by* whom boots are made. In the second error

*with* suggests an instrument of binding; but *rules and regulations* are not dead instruments, they are the living words of men and count as agents, therefore *by your rules and regulations*.

Error 343. Philanthropists have a mania *to* build.

Error 344. The Viceroy availed himself of the occasion *to* a statement of policy.

Error 345. An extraordinary solicitude *to* the wishes of the people.

Error 346. Do they seriously hope *of* national unity?

Error 347. The substitution *of* male teachers *by* women teachers.

*For*, should have been used for *to* and *of* in all the above. Both *mania*, *occasion*, *solicitude* and *hope* (verb) suggest aim or tendency of action or emotion, and this is expressed by *for*. *Of* follows the noun *hope*, not the verb. The last error is common in England also, because of confusion between the nouns *substitution* and *replacement*. One *substitutes* women teachers *for* male teachers, hence *substitution for male teachers of women teachers*. On the other hand, one *replaces* male teachers *with* women teachers, hence *replacement of male teachers with or by women teachers*, which is the construction above but with the wrong headword.

Error 348. So as to deter them *in* the proper discharge of their duties.

Error 349. A widow is prohibited *to* remarry.

Error 350. We hope the Madras Government will not refrain *to* press their claims.

*From* is required in all the above, for *from* suggests separation and the headwords *deter*, *prohibited*, *refrain* all likewise suggest separation from some object. The objects must in all cases be nouns or gerunds, hence *deter them from the proper discharge*, *prohibited from remarrying*, and *refrain from pressing*, etc.

Error 351. As I have already passed the Intermediate Science Examination *with* Physics and Chemistry, I beg to apply for exemption.



Error 352. We cannot but admire his moral courage *for* having performed it.

*In* is required in both of these, since limitation in space or action is intended. One *passes in* the limited subjects of an examination, and one has *courage in* a limited action.

Error 353. The reform has been taken seriously *on* hand.

Error 354. The 'rab' is then placed *into* vessels called 'kalsis'.

*In* is required in both. *In* used, in older English, to express both confinement in and motion into a place or position, hence, with the oldest verbs and expressions of motion—to *put in*, to *place in*, to *take in hand*—*in* still suggests motion into.

Error 355. The problem has taken deep root *into* the minds of thoughtful people.

Error 356. Even the more advanced classes are getting more and more entangled *into* this Western vice.

*In*, expressing position and state, is required again in both. *Take*, in *to take root in*, does not suggest motion into but growth within, hence *in*. Also, to be *entangled*, one must already be *in* the thing which entangles.

Error 357. To bring the Government *in* touch with the people.

Error 358. It will not do to play *in* the hands of interested persons.

Error 359. More than 30 people were injured and admitted *in* the Congress hospital.

Error 360. The most violent statements have found their way *in* the columns of his paper.

*Into* is here required in every case, for motion from an external position is intended (*bring, play, admit, way*) and, except in old expressions, *into* is always required for such motion.

Error 361. A little knowledge *about* geometry.

*Of* is required here, with its transitive force, so that the noun *knowledge* may govern *geometry*.

Error 362. If a man fully repents *for* his vices.

Error 363. We should speak *about* the good which he has done.

Error 364. A Brahmin gentleman was accused *for* having accepted a glass of water from a Sudra woman.

Error 365. I am very glad *at* this.

*Of*, again, but in its other use as meaning 'concerning' is required in all these.

Error 366. To spend money *over* things.

Error 367. To spend money *after* things.

*On*, in the sense of superiority or power over an object, is here required in both cases.

Error 368. The Guru shot an arrow at the torch, which fell *on* the ground.

Error 369. Some policemen came *near* me and asked me if I wanted salt.

*To*, implying physical movement 'in the direction of', is here required. Things or people may *fall on* the ground when the place of falling is thought of, but they *fall to* the ground when the action of falling is to the fore. In the second error *near* is a translation of the vernacular *zawal*, *āgal*, etc.

Error 370. Bold and daring souls may aspire *for* such a condemnation.

Error 371. Nor has Mr. M. shown himself anxious *of* cutting down the Army budget.

Error 372. They showed an intense curiosity *of* witnessing . . . .

Error 373. It is not a piece of advice which an official need fear *of* taking.

*To*, again, is required in all four cases, since the verb *aspire*, the adjective *anxious* and the nouns *curiosity* and *fear* all express an attitude of mind towards something. The verbal object must be an infinitive—*anxious to cut down*, *curiosity to witness*, *fear to take*. The *of* in the last error



is perhaps borrowed wrongly from the noun *fear*, which takes a different preposition from the verb.

Error 374. There was another disadvantage *from* which the system of Boards laboured.

*Under* is here required, since the headword *labouring* metaphorically suggests a burden on the *system*. The *from* has perhaps been borrowed from the synonymous *suffered*.

Error 375. He wrote books *by* his own hand.

Error 376. The walls of the building were decorated *by* neat brickwork.

*With*, suggesting an instrument, is necessary since the *hand* and *brickwork* are both instruments, not agents (*by*).

(§§ 241-244). B. *Headwords with more than one Preposition.*

Here errors are due to confusion of the possible preposition that the headword can take. The proper preposition is that which suits the meaning of the headword in the context.

Error 377. Some said small pebbles, and some said shoes, were *thrown on* the police.

*Throw on* suggests throwing from above, which was not the case. *At*, suggesting hostile throwing in any direction, is required.

Error 378. A municipality may not always see eye to eye with the Government, and may wish to *stand up to* its rights.

*Stand up to* means 'oppose'. What is wanted here is *stand up for*, meaning 'insist on'.

Error 379. To make one pay the penalty of a sin *to* which he is not *responsible*.

A man is *responsible for* a sin, though he may be *responsible to* a person.

Error 380. Such weighty responsibilities are thrown *over* her shoulders.

This is a case where *thrown on* is required, since the responsibilities have been made to lie *on* the lady's shoulders

(metaphorically). *Thrown over* would be suited to a cape or cloak put literally all round her shoulders.

Error 381. Madras has generally to be content with crumbs *thrown at* her.

Error 382. His coverlet was *torn in* rags.

Error 383. The mission which Your Majesty has been pleased to *confide in* me.

Error 384. The Secretary of State had his *attention called on* the Bengal partition.

Error 385. She came *at* the door.

*To* is required in all these cases, since only direction is intended. *Thrown at* suggests hostility, which is not meant. *Torn in* is found in the phrase *torn in pieces*, which is an old expression for 'torn into pieces', but modern usage requires *to*. *Confide in* is intransitive, meaning 'trust in', while *confide to* is transitive (with object *which*) and means 'entrust to'. *Call on* means 'pay a visit to', while *attention* requires *to*. *Come at* means 'attack'.

Error 386. The Sabha may be expected to do what the Government have hitherto *failed in* doing.

*Failed* here requires *to do*, expressing direction of purpose with a verb. *Failed in* takes as object a noun suggesting circumstances of 'failure'. (*He failed in his purpose.*)

Error 387. This view, *originating from* Hobbes, was handed down through Locke.

When a person is the origin, *to originate* requires *with*, suggesting association of the view with the person. *Originate from* suggests time.

Error 388. The proprietor *charged for* sedition should be tried.

*Charged with* is necessary, expressing that sedition is the instrument of the charge. *Charged for* means 'asked to pay for' (literally).

(§246). C. *Prepositions before a Clause.*

Prepositions are required before a clause by some headwords, not required by others. Old headwords generally drop the preposition, new ones retain it. This may cause



confusion, and so may the form of the sentence in which the construction occurs.

Error 389. The utmost *caution* should be exercised whether, and how far, there should be interference.

*Caution* is here the headword to the clause *whether . . . interference*. It requires the compound preposition *as to* (i.e. *as to whether*, etc.) in order to govern the clause.

Error 390. That the vision is to widen and widen until it obtains its fullness, one may be *sure of*.

The long preceding clause *That . . . fullness* has *sure* for its headword, but *sure* drops its *of* when governing a clause, therefore omit the *of*.

#### D. Other Parts of Speech mistaken for Prepositions.

A few adjectives and adverbs are sometimes mistakenly used as prepositions, i.e. they are made to govern objects in an impossible way.

Error 391. *Like* the abolition of child marriage, the best interests of India demand . . .

*Like* is one of the few adjectives which can govern an object, but then it means 'resembling'. No such meaning is attachable to the above, which requires the compound preposition *Along with* (*the abolition*, etc.)

Error 392. She had severe and narrow ways of thinking *due to* her belief in the literal inspiration of the Bible.

Error 393. The people have lost their centre of balance, *due to* the break-up of the old system.

Error 394. Which job he gave up, *due to* ill health.

These three examples show the development of an error which is now very common in English journalism. *Due* is an adjective and must qualify a noun. It naturally follows its noun if it starts an adjective adjunct with the assistance of the preposition *to*. Error 392 might perhaps not be counted an error because *due* there qualifies the noun *ways of thinking*. But in 393 *due* does not qualify *centre of balance* nor *people*, the only nouns in front of it, but is

being forced to qualify the whole clause *The people . . . balance*, which it cannot. Similarly, in 394, *due* is made to qualify the adjective clause *which job he gave up*, which it also cannot. There is no reason for this bad practice, because English has at least two old prepositions which do this work perfectly, viz., *because of* and *on account of*. The correction is to use these, i.e. *Which job he gave up because of* (or *on account of*) *ill health*, and so also with 393 and, preferably too, with 392.

Error 395. *They took money as their god.*

*As* may be used as an adverb or a relative, but not as a preposition. *Took* here requires *for*.

Error 396. The Government have commenced to dispose *off* seats in the Legislature.

Perhaps because of bad pronunciation, the writer has here used the adverb *off* where he required the preposition *of* after *dispose*.

Error 397. Sita, after washing her hands, *set to* her task.

Error 398. A hungry man does not wait for others before he *falls to* a meal.

The writer here does not see that *to* is, in each sentence, an adverb, making the compound verbs *set to*, *fall to*. These compound verbs are intransitive, and both require the preposition *at* before their prepositional objects, i.e. *set to at her task*, *before he falls to at a meal*.

## EXERCISES ON CHAPTER X

### PREPOSITIONS

The following sentences contain prepositions which are wrong because they are unsuitable in meaning. Read §§233-238 again carefully, and then correct each sentence by supplying the preposition suited to the meaning of the sentence:—

(1) *In Adverb Adjuncts with a Preposition.*

1. Please get over my back.



2. They stealthily approached the village at some distance.
3. Some people speak good of their superiors only on their face.
4. The forces which make for the uplift of the race are ranged on the side in which he is working.
5. He shaved his royal master as he lay on bed.
6. It is entirely beneath the point to say that you knew nothing of it.
7. He has been living on the seaside.
8. The fish was in its last gasp.
9. We have noticed this since some time.
10. He prayed both at the time of rising and setting sun.
11. We were swept away from our feet by the tide.
12. It was the Victorian Era into which Tennyson flourished.
13. Their conversation was not heard by the loud noise of the piano.
14. Dussera was celebrated on great *éclat*.
15. You want to the Councils men who are educated and more or less versed with public affairs.

(2) *After Headwords.*

(a) *After Transitive Verbs with further Prepositional Object.*

1. To the evil that men did him he uniformly returned good.
2. His Majesty asked many questions to him.
3. We ought not to throw doubts over what they said.
4. He did not devote sufficient care on his children.
5. The Rani took a great liking for Raisuli.
6. They have no time to devote full attention for such matters.
7. We should not speak evil after dead persons.
8. He led his friend in and introduced him with the other visitors.
9. Writing materials should be provided to poor children.

10. The speech was meant to the students.
11. They will estrange you to your own kith and kin.
12. They employ themselves to do mischief.
13. We object to the transplanting of every British institution on Indian soil.
14. They raised their Motherland on the very highest pedestal.
15. The whole action is directed on securing the greatest good.
16. This moved the old man into tears, and the matter ended there.
17. Leave the enquiry into the hands of the authorities.
18. They kept the key of the treasure of knowledge into their own hands.
19. The Nawab has involved himself into debt.
20. He was not put in school till ten years of age.
21. We must not pour new wine in old bottles.
22. Imagine all the gold that is being imported in India!
23. The windows to the building are glazed in stained glass.
24. He called the girl in the witness box.
25. This speaks volumes in favour of those who brought the institution in its present state.
26. The light it admits in the monument is certainly not good.
27. He also warned us from the bad side of capitalism.
28. It is easy to taunt people for their timidity.
29. It is foolish to lay out money for building at the present time.
30. He was invited for dinner.
31. Candidates holding these certificates will be entitled for admission.
32. Few people are inclined to devote any portion of their time for public work.
33. We heartily congratulate the colonel for his selection to the post.
34. I saw curtains of cotton ornamented by curious devices.
35. Happiness is derived by doing good.



36. Refuse must be removed at a long distance.
37. They occupied themselves to reading.
38. He invited me at his house.
39. We mistake the unreal as the real and fail to see the path.

(b) *After Intransitive Verbs.*

1. The people of this district have never wavered from their loyalty.
2. The child was crying violently for a bruised temple.
3. He adhered with the law.
4. Mutsuhilo then came upon the throne.
5. This is the high social ideal each household should aspire for.
6. Now Perseus went away at sea.
7. He asked her to come with her son at his house to live with him.
8. The Saturday Review has been complaining against the existing Copyright Law.
9. The train steamed in the station at 3.31 p.m.
10. If he really falls in the hands of disloyal men, it will be all up with him.
11. The Poona Women's University have succeeded to win much sympathy.
12. We must act honestly with our neighbours.
13. They had not cared for clearing up their positions.
14. Students like to go out in foreign countries.
15. The Conference has disposed off the most urgent political questions of our day.

(c) *After Nouns.*

1. V. B. Pendharkar has great pleasure to announce the show *Sonyachakalas*.
2. There are to-day many sympathisers of widow remarriage.
3. The best way of ascertaining the extent of the wrong is through a public enquiry.
4. The lives of these men were a direct and living testimony of the ideals in which they believed.

5. Students to-day have aspirations of larger political rights.
6. *The Two Voices* may be called the preface for *In Memoriam*.
7. He expressed his objections for adopting the proposal.
8. In one telling sentence he gave us the clue for the solution.
9. We have a positive objection against this work.
10. Professor K. has the satisfaction to find his labours successful.
11. We are not surprised at Lord L.'s refusal to a compromise.
12. There can be only one possible explanation to this dastardly crime.
13. We have received his acceptance to this proposal.
14. There is no reason to have any doubts on the success of this experiment.
15. The explanation for this is not far to seek.
16. Tennyson's *Elaine* is an embodiment for unbalanced emotion.
17. She had been the cause for a rupture of relations between a father and a son.
18. They express appreciation for the reform scheme.
19. She has shown bitter resentment against this humiliation.
20. No one need make much complaint against this.
21. An enquiry of conditions of labour in the mills is to be made.
22. The entrance of this room is too narrow.
23. Hundreds of young men seek admission every year in our various law colleges.
24. He is a thorn by the side of his parents.
25. His love with her was of a sincere kind.
26. This is the best medium to the propagation of truth.
27. The late Mr. D. was a true worker of India.
28. There has existed a real necessity of such a measure as this.



29. There has been a lessening demand of fabrics from Lancashire.

30. He made a very thorough search about his son.

31. I wish to express my gratification of having the privilege to be your chairman.

(d) *After Adjectives.*

1. He may get angry on us.

2. People feel disgusted of the existing social system.

3. He was extremely sensitive on such things.

4. We are anxious of doing justice to both parties.

5. It was entirely gratifying for me to note that enthusiasm for my proposal.

6. They may be afraid to offend our orthodox susceptibilities.

7. These ladies were possessed by a keen sense of their position.

8. They do not feel jealous against her.

9. His community was not unanimous to espouse his cause.

10. It has put the people to a number of economic losses, of which they are not yet free.

11. He was deeply touched to hear these eloquent words. Government is solicitous of the interests of the Colonials.

## TEST PAPERS 10—(PREPOSITIONS)

### 10 D

(1) What are the main uses of prepositions in English? Construct one or two sentences of your own to illustrate each use.

(2) Name the various kinds of objects which a preposition may take in English, and give a sentence of your own which exemplifies *each* object.

(3) What is meant by a Headword to a preposition? Illustrate your answer with six examples of various kinds

of headwords and their prepositions and give a suitable object to each.

## 10 E

(4) In the following sentences intransitive verbs have been used as transitive (i.e. with a direct object). Correct them by supplying the proper preposition with each of the verbs as it stands:—

1. She jested each and every one of the guests.
2. We should remonstrate a person for his bad conduct.
3. As soon as petitioning was resolved, the futility of boycott was admitted.
4. Houses built by this method of concrete may compete stone buildings.
5. The mine-owners will have nothing to complain.
6. No member of this Association shall indent any kind of foreign piece-goods.
7. This meeting earnestly appeals the University students to do all their circumstances might point to expedite our victory.

(5) The following sentences contain dual construction verbs wrongly used. Correct them by supplying or omitting prepositions, and state, in each case, what is the meaning of the verb as it stands at present in the sentence:—

1. A gentleman can work any sort of hard manual work.
2. He has been searching Krishna but could not find him anywhere.
3. It is difficult to hit at the exact meaning.
4. He always preached of gradual uplift.
5. In *Maud* Tennyson treats the nature of the Crimean War.
6. I know Prince Salim too well to expect of such a thing from him.
7. We wish to know of what sort of man he is.
8. We then suggested that they could operate the patients as there was no other surgical aid available.



9. This essayist is a person who takes to his art seriously.

10. We hope we shall ere long hear of the last of ill-treatment to our people over there.

11. It presented them that long-wished opportunity.

12. No problem escaped from his eye.

13. The knowledge thus gained may not be as thorough and accurate as one could wish.

14. Sir B. R. impressed the Committee that the Government desired their opinion early.

15. I need not labour on this point any more.

16. I hinted to him of my vague suspicions.

17. This measure is in consonance with the policy unfortunately launched upon lately by the authorities.

# 10 F

(6) Transitive verbs in the following sentences have been wrongly given prepositional instead of direct objects. Correct the sentences by supplying, in place of each transitive verb, an intransitive verb (or verbal phrase) of similar meaning which does take the preposition given:—

1. He tackled with the problem.

2. The young man, on being interrogated with, expressed his unwillingness to become a pleader.

3. On coming home he encountered with strong opposition from his people.

4. I wrote him a letter urging upon the necessity of agreement with his people.

5. Has any Conference ever petitioned to the Government against this waste of precious life?

6. There are men who still hug to their belief in such old customs.

7. No counsel, however wise, is heeded to when it affects our own pleasures.

8. He has a grasp of public questions which very few can claim to.

9. Scott wrote thus while addressing to Pitt and Fox.

10. We do not pretend to judge on these questions.

11. Inspiration is altogether spiritual and influences on the spirit of man and on that alone.

12. He emphasized on the importance of introducing machinery.

13. Taking down a volume, he began to discuss on its merits.

14. We should contemplate on the great benefits derived from wide reading.

15. At 1.45 p.m. an alarm was raised by the Congress volunteers by continued whistles intimating to the War Council of the arrival of the police force.

16. The Civil Service does not lack in men suitable for the purpose.

17. He suggested, among other things, for the organisation of a Swadeshi Chamber of Commerce.

18. She ordered for her carriage.

19. He cannot help for it.

20. When their desire for one thing is fulfilled, people begin to desire for another.

21. They all demanded for a reduction of expenditure.

22. He reproaches Dr. N. for making up his mind to contest for a seat.

23. The several aspects of this case must be viewed at collectively.

24. I regret at the delay.

25. Social reform has always had to combat against opposition.

26. In this poem we find him meditating about science and art.

(7) In the following sentences there are either adverbial or attributive adjuncts containing the wrong preposition. In each case supply the right preposition to suit the context:—

1. The boy is so ill that he has hardly taken anything since the last three days.

2. In this play of Shakespeare there is humour in every turn.

3. Some men among each caste take to learning.



4. They laid the blame for these measures on the door of Lord Curzon and clamoured for his recall.
5. There are currents of thought and feeling which are necessarily hidden from the surface.
6. Tennyson has been considered the greatest representative poet in his age.
7. He was shy and kept on the background.
8. This is encouragement for those in the lowest rungs of the ladder.
9. We are glad that preparations are being made in the same lines as we suggested.
10. Bridge is the only game of cards I am well up to.
11. This building has pillars of ornamental shafts.
12. The ancient Barbarike was on the mouth of the Indus.
13. We all build walls round our minds and voluntarily confine ourselves to their limits.
14. Barbarian chiefs and barons carved out among themselves the fairest portions of the Empire.
15. Private hospitals there are but they are run with heavy loss.
16. With fair or foul means the money is got.
17. The session was, to all accounts, a good success.
18. Government will find it in their own interest to seek our co-operation.
19. One is everything there: everything else than legislator.

## 10 G

(8) The following sentences have transitive verbs with further prepositional objects, to govern which the wrong preposition has been used. Supply, in each case, the proper preposition :—

1. This fund can best be employed for being distributed for needy traders.
2. They are an illustrious band of workers who consecrated their lives at the service of their country.

3. He has been favouring one community against another.
4. I laid his wish and counsel at heart.
5. It derived its importance by the manner in which it was effected.
6. Mr. H. complimented him for having successfully dealt with anarchism in the province.
7. These poor people have surroundings which doom them for an evil life.
8. The maids were forbidden from telling any terrible stories to the child.
9. He allowed himself to be clapped in jail.
10. Swadeshi will introduce simple habits and tastes in us, and save lakhs of rupees spent every year in luxuries.
11. We translate this letter in English and publish it here.
12. The English people called into question that impious act.
13. We can best help by kindling sentiments of religion into the heart of the nation.
14. The editor puts this poem into the Poems of the Victory of Sense.
15. They helped the Indian peasant to retain the trade of the country into his own hands.
16. These are the moral principles of which the English society of his time was based.
17. They seek to impress Englishmen of their disinterestedness.
18. This cowardly propagandist has not the moral courage to put his name on the pamphlet.
19. He has a kind and gentle disposition combined to a total absence of personal ambition.
20. We admire its beauty more when we contrast it to the dull lines of the other drawing.
21. They prepare themselves to higher, nobler and purer ends.
22. This is what I desire to press to your notice.
23. These are powers hitherto vested with the Secretary of State.



24. Too many people are wasting their energies after salt in this campaign.

25. His father's attention was drawn by the Romantic architecture of Prout's drawings.

26. They practise these or any other rites for which they may take a fancy.

27. The girl asked several questions to the people around her.

(9) The following sentences have verbs of dual construction coupled with the wrong preposition. Supply the right preposition, in each case, and explain also the meaning or use of the verb with the wrong preposition:—

1. Come, let us climb on this tree.

2. The story begins with giving us the previous history of the hero.

3. The Beñgal Partition was a convenient handle for the agitators to operate on.

4. The manual treats exhaustively with the fell disease of consumption.

5. Millicent was playing with her instrument.

6. Unity and co-operation are indispensable in the uplifting of a people and in relieving them of their poverty.

#### 10 H

(10) Substitute the correct preposition after the intransitive verbs in the following:—

1. It was owing to his vigorous protest that Government interfered into the proposals of the local authority.

2. This action must go a long way in convincing the authorities that they should act.

3. Everyone's sympathy goes out with Sir E. and Lady B. in their trouble.

4. The very name Rajput would suffice in instilling self-respect in him.

5. Our independent reviewers seem still to hesitate in dealing with the matter.

6. On his return he sat for a full-length portrait at Mr. Northcote.
7. The authorities should rely in using a minimum of force.
8. The poet even thought to end his life.
9. The whole of the Southern Konkan came in his possession.
10. These restrictions have succeeded to deprive students of their independence.
11. Many evils arise by this.
12. These are the ends to which Universities exist.
13. It stifled the real Swadeshi movement which might have culminated into genuine industrial progress.
14. The timber importers should insist to buy free on board.

(11) Rewrite, in good English, the following sentences, in which prepositions and other parts of speech have been confused together:—

1. I saw him just before twenty years.
2. Crooked streets still remain due to lack of funds.
3. Several volunteers have various bruises on the body due to be dragged along.
4. The Dutch air liner made a forced landing due to a fog near Constantinople and was damaged.

#### 10 J

(12) What are the *correct* prepositions after nouns and adjectives in the following:—

1. He shows great sympathy to the people of China.
2. We are not in close contact of these gentlemen.
3. Hence their consent with the proposed rules.
4. They show a true attachment with their Mother Country.
5. There has been a tendency of giving a practical shape to the social system.
6. The poet Noyes is pleased in modern science.
7. The Government is to be congratulated on their decision of withdrawing the Bill.



8. Regard must be had for the opportunities afforded by the scheme.
9. This is a condition precedent of any conciliation.
10. The movement fits people for taking full advantage of their powers.
11. We should be given sufficient legislative power for preventing fraud.
12. Strenuous endeavours have been made for enlisting the people's sympathy.
13. No obstacle has been made against negotiations.
14. Their outlook of national life is extremely narrow.
15. No improvement can be suggested either to the arrangement or the get-up of the book.
16. The spirit of the Note is in complete contradiction to British public opinion.
17. The writer gives various theories on religion.
18. As regards the Act, it is worthy to note that it applies only to certain classes of people.
19. In the last scene of Act II Posthumus gives vent to a rating on women.
20. We find here Tennyson's loftiness in thought.
21. Thus the problem of the educated unemployed will become much easier for solution.
22. Are we then morally justified to shun our own brothers?
23. Many doubts are raised in this book for the future life.
24. He asked what care was taken after the education of the nobility.
25. His poetry gives us an insight on the prevailing ideas of his time.
26. Hence arises sickness that has found a way in every home.
27. There is no use of being vindictive.
28. They make these suggestions to strengthening the country's resources.
29. There is a great tendency of the intellect of the nation being unduly diverted to one channel only.

30. It is not the substitution of the official by the popular element which the scheme aims at.

31. The old are offended to notice that the younger generation is not true to the traditions of their fore-fathers.

32. The State might provide the machinery of administering the little affairs of the villages.

33. This move will create nothing but ill-feeling of one community against another.

34. The procession was sadly lacking in participation from the wealthier classes.

35. There is absolutely no connection of this organisation with the Congress Committee.

36. He felt great disappointment of the results of University education.

37. The Moderates felt crestfallen for being thus betrayed.

38. We have but to imagine the burning impatience of Juliet in hearing the news from Romeo.

39. The Liberals are not as anxious of the prerogatives of democracy as they profess to be.



## CHAPTER XI

### CONJUNCTIONS

#### CONNECTIVES.

§247. At the head of the chapter on Adverbs we saw that, in a sentence such as :—

Have you seen C. *since* he was in England.

the word *since* is called a conjunction because it 'joins together' (Lat. *conjunctio*='joining together') the clauses *Have you seen C.* and *he was in England.*

This function of joining together, which conjunctions enjoy, is, however, shared by words which are definitely other parts of speech, even when they join together parts of sentences. For instance, let us take the following sentences in groups :—

(a) This is the book *which* I chose.

He asked me *what* I wanted.

(b) I called him, *still* he did not reply.

I remember the house *where* I was born.

Tell me *where* I am to send this parcel.

He brings cheerfulness *wherever* he goes.

(c) This is not the book *that* I sent for.

Wednesday was the day *that* he came.

I am certain *that* I shall see him.

This is not the same book *as* I chose.

This is not the same man *as* came last week.

This is a taller man *than* came last week.

There is no woman *but* is fond of flattery.

There is no man so wise *but* he sometimes errs.

(d) He expects to come *but* he is not sure.

It is long *since* you were here last.

All the words in italics appear to join the part of the sentence which precedes them with the part that follows. That is, they are all Connectives, to use a word which explains itself but is not the name of a separate part of speech, for the words in italics are not all one part of speech but include many parts of speech.

§248. How are we to distinguish one kind of Connective from another? Let us look at them in the groups given.

In group (a), *which* connects *This is the book* with *I chose*. But it also (i) refers back to the noun *book*, and (ii) belongs definitely to the clause *which I chose* and not at all to the clause *This is the book*. We call *which* a relative pronoun because of (i) and say it is the object of the verb *chose* in consequence of (ii). Similarly, while *what* connects *He asked me* with *I wanted*, it does not belong at all to the first of these clauses. *What* opens the second clause, which is reported speech for *What do you want?*, and is an interrogative pronoun.

§249. In (b) *still* connects *I called him* and *he did not reply*, but it belongs entirely to the second clause and qualifies the verb *did reply*. It is an adverb. Similarly, *where* is an adverb qualifying the verb *was born* in the second example, though it does refer back to the noun *house*, and therefore some grammarians call it a relative adverb in this position. In the third example *where* opens the clause *where I am to send this parcel*, which is a reported form of the question *Where am I to send this parcel?*, and therefore *where* is here an interrogative adverb, though it connects the clause to which it belongs to the first clause *Tell me*. Finally, *wherever* is an adverb qualifying *goes* in the



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clause *wherever he goes*, to which it belongs and which it only connects with the first clause *He brings cheerfulness*.

§250. In (c) we have first three sentences with *that*. In the first two, *that* appears to belong to the second clause in each case (*that I sent for* and *that he came*). In *that I sent for*, *that* is the object of *sent for* and might be replaced by *which*, and therefore looks like a relative pronoun. But notice that it differs from *which* in that, while we can say *for which I sent*, we cannot say *for that I sent*, i.e., this relative *that* will not tolerate a preposition in front of it, as *which* will. In *that he came*, *that* cannot be replaced by *which* but by *on which*, showing that *that* is not the object of *came* but a kind of adverb of time. In *I am certain that I shall see him*, *that* belongs neither to *I am certain* nor to *I shall see him* and cannot be replaced by the pronoun *which*, and is therefore a pure conjunction. But, curiously enough, in all three sentences, *that* can disappear without affecting the meaning of the sentences in the least, i.e., *This is not the book I sent for*, *Wednesday was the day he came*, *I am certain I shall see him*. So, relative *that* in the first two examples differs from relative *which* in two ways at least while it resembles the conjunction *that*, and we shall treat relative *that* as a conjunction.

Like *that*, as appears, in the fourth and fifth sentences, to belong to the second clauses as *I chose* and as *came last week* and to be the object of *chose* and the subject of *came*, while it refers back to *same*. Is this also a relative pronoun? It seems better to treat it like relative *that*, which it strongly resembles in function, and call it a conjunction and to say that *as I chose* is a clause without an object while *as came last week* is a clause without a subject. This decision

is supported by the use of *than* in *This is a taller man than came last week*, which is exactly parallel and where, if *as* is a pronoun, *than* should also be called a pronoun, which no one would accept. If, on the other hand, *than* is taken as a conjunction, as is usual, then *as* should be regarded as a conjunction also.

Similarly, in *There is no woman but is fond of flattery*, *but* is a relative like *as* and *that*, and might be replaced by *who . . . not* and called the subject of *is fond*, but the next sentence *There is no man so wise but he sometimes errs* shows *but* in an identically similar construction and quite definitely a conjunction, so that relative *but* may be classed, along with relatives *that* and *as*, as a conjunction.

§251. In (d) we find *but* and *since* connecting each two clauses, to neither of which they really belong. *But* and *since* have here no function but that of connecting, and this is the function of a clear conjunction.

#### DEFINITION OF A CONJUNCTION.

§252. To distinguish it from other connectives, then, we may define a conjunction as being a word used to join together two parallel parts of a sentence, to neither of which it belongs.

The parts of a sentence (printed in italics) which a conjunction can join together are :—

- (1) Two or more clauses :—

*Have you seen C* since *he was in England?*

- (2) Two or more words, both either subjects or objects or adjuncts :—

*Father* and *I* both saw him (Subjects).

We met *your father* as well as *your brother* (Objects).



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*Great gentleman and good friend*, he is one of the best men living (Appositional Adjuncts).  
He came running *at full speed* and *out of breath* (Adverbial Adjuncts).

## CORRELATIVE CONJUNCTIONS.

§253. In all the examples of sentences given in the previous paragraph, the conjunction used (*since*, *and*, *as well as*) has sufficed to connect the clauses. That is, conjunctions may be used singly.

That a conjunction is going to be used may, however, be heralded by an adverb placed before the first part of the sentence to be joined. So, in:—

*Both* my father *and* I saw him.

*both* is an adverb placed before *my father* as a kind of warning that a conjunction (*and*) is coming which will add on another part of the sentence (viz. *I*) to *my father*.

Such pairs of words are called Correlative Conjunctions, although the first of the pair is really an adverb.

The commonest of these Correlatives are *both . . . and*, *not only . . . but (also)*, *not . . . but, either . . . or*, *neither . . . nor*, *no sooner . . . than*, *hardly (or scarcely) . . . when*, *as . . . as*, *so . . . as*, *what with . . . what (with)* or *and*.

## CONJUNCTIONS AND CLAUSES.

§254. The chapter on Making Sentences will explain (§§352-3), that the clauses which make up a sentence may be either logically equal to each other or logically unequal, and that logically equal clauses are called Co-ordinate, while, in a sentence composed of unequal clauses (i.e. a Complex Sentence), the clause carrying the main statement is called the Head

(or Principal) Clause while the other clause (or clauses) is (or are) called Subordinate.

Since the parts, whether of Double or Complex Sentences, are usually joined together by conjunctions, we may distinguish two main groups of conjunctions, viz. Co-ordinating and Subordinating.

#### CO-ORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS.

§255. These are such as join together co-ordinate words or clauses, i.e., such as are of equal logical importance in a sentence. They may be used either singly or correlatively.

Those used singly are *and*, *as well as*, *or*, *or else*, *nor* and *but*. The co-ordinate correlatives—the first member of each being an adverb—are *not only . . . but also*, *both . . . and*, *either . . . or*, *neither . . . nor*.

§256. They can be classified according to the effect which their meaning has on the relation between the two parts they join together. Thus *and* suggests addition, and, if a number of additions are made with the help of *and*, i.e.:—

We were all very surprised at *and* pleased with our presents *and* grateful to the giver.  
it gives the impression of 'heaping up' or cumulation. An old and still useful name for this class of co-ordinating conjunctions is, therefore, Cumulative.

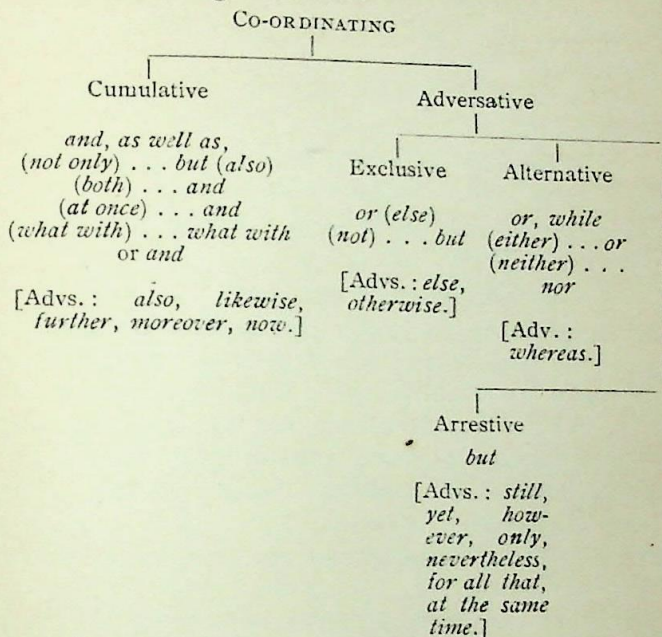
§257. On the other hand, *or*, *nor*, and *but* suggest that the second part is in some sort of opposition to the first, i.e.:—

He came *but* I would not see him.

• and the old term for these is Adversative. They can be further subdivided into three sub-groups, as the scheme and explanation below show.



§258. In the following scheme showing the character and relations of co-ordinating conjunctions the examples are arranged to give, first, single conjunctions, then correlatives (with adverbs in round brackets), then (in square brackets) adverbs used with the same connecting function :—



§259. The individual uses of these conjunctions are :—

*And* joins together two or more affirmatives, e.g. :—

He was restless *and* uneasy *and* hindered others in their work.

*Both . . . and* is an emphatic form of *and*, emphasizing the fact of union of what it joins, e.g. :—

Your brother is *both* tall *and* strong.

*As well as* lays emphasis on the first of the parts it joins:—

Your brother is *tall as well as* strong.

*Not only . . . but* lays emphasis on the second of the parts it joins:—

Your brother is *not only* tall *but* strong.

*At once . . . and* has the same effect as *not only . . . but*.

*What with . . . what with* or *and* is used only in free adjuncts:—

*What with* illness and *what with* bad times, he could scarcely make both ends meet.

*Or* can be used with either exclusive or alternative meaning. Thus, in:—

Come in, *or* you'll get wet.

*or* suggests an exclusion of the first part, i.e. *or* (if you don't come in) you'll get wet, and the second part can be emphasized by addition of the adverb *else*. The alternative meaning of *or* gives a choice between two or more possibilities which may be strengthened by making *either* precede the first possibility:—

*Either* come in *or* stay out, but don't stand in the doorway.

*Neither . . . nor* negatives both or all of the possibilities offered:—

He would *neither* come in *nor* stay out.

*While*, as a co-ordinating conjunction, has grown out of the (subordinating) conjunction of time, but has lost almost all reference to time. It indicates an opposition or contrast between the two parts:—

The rich have more than they know what to do with *while* (on the other hand) the poor starve.

*But*, if preceded by *not* in front of the first part,



suggests acceptance of the second part to the exclusion of the first:—

The man is *not* clever *but* he is hardworking.

When used without *not* before the first part, *but* suggests a negative of the second part:—

I tried to get near him *but* could not.

(§§255-259).

### *Errors with Co-ordinating Conjunctions*

#### (1) *Single.*

Error here is caused by not recognizing whether the two parts to be joined are added to each other and require a Cumulative conjunction, or are opposed to each other and require an Adversative conjunction.

Error 399. The glorious *but* great task of welding together the provinces of India remains for the future.

There is no opposition in meaning between *glorious* and *great*, but rather addition of *great* to *glorious* is meant. *And* is required.

#### (2) *Correlative.*

Error 400. *Both* in the earlier periods *as well as* in the later.

*Both* and *as well as* are not correlatives to each other. Either *both . . . and* must be used, if equal emphasis on *earlier* and *later* is required, or only *as well as* (after *periods*) if emphasis is required on *earlier*.

Error 401. This never was *and* is the method of great teachers.

Both alternatives (*was*, *is*) are negated. Therefore, not *and*, but *nor* is required.

Error 402. Dr. R. *nor* anyone else can take delight in casting aspersions on the Government.

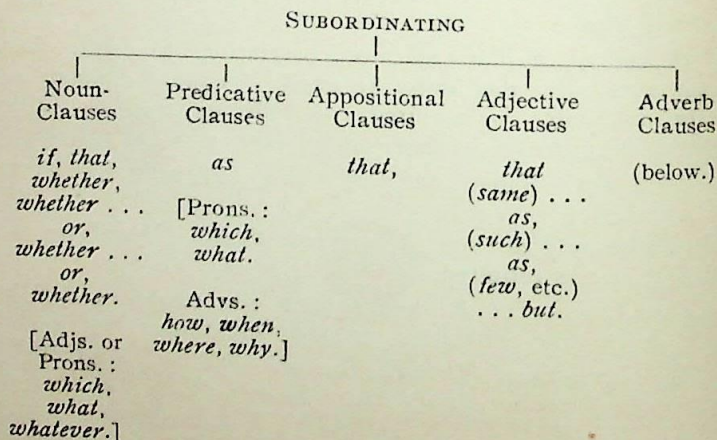
Both alternatives (*Dr. R.*, *anyone*) being stated, both correlatives (*neither*, *nor*) must be used, *neither* before *Dr. R.*

## SUBORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS.

§260. Since these conjunctions join together a head-clause and a subordinate clause, we can first classify them according to the kind of sub-clause which they introduce, viz., noun-clauses, predicative-clauses, appositional clauses, adjective clauses or adverbial clauses (see §354). Then, since adverb clauses express a number of different kinds of attendant circumstances—time, purpose, condition, etc.—conjunctions which introduce adverb clauses can be further sub-divided according to these kinds.

It will be found that some conjunctions—notably *that* and *as*—appear under several heads, which means that they have several meanings or uses, which require to be distinguished and held apart from each other.

§261. The following scheme of Subordinating conjunctions is not meant to be exhaustive, but arranges the principal conjunctions according to their uses and adds (in square brackets) other parts of speech also used in parallel circumstances:—





## CONJUNCTIONS

## ADVERB CLAUSES

(1) Time	(2) Place	(3) Cause or Reason	(4) Purpose	(5) Result
<i>after, as, as soon as, before, now (that), since, till, until, while, whilst, (no sooner) . . . than, (hardly) . . . when.</i> [Adv. : <i>when.</i> ]	[Advs. : <i>whence, where, wherever, wheresoever.</i> ]	<i>as, because, for, in that, since, that (shared by Object- clauses), seeing that.</i>	<i>in order that, so that, that, lest, (and).</i>	<i>but, so that, (so) . . . that, (such) . . . that, (and, or)</i> [Advs. : <i>accordingly, consequently, hence, so, then, therefore whence, wherefore.</i> ]
(6) Condition	(7) Concession	(8) Comparison	(9) Manner	(10) Restriction
<i>but, but that, if, if not, unless, provided that, whether . . . or (whether)</i>	<i>although, as, though, if, for all (that), granted (that)</i>	<i>as if, as though, rather than, sooner . . . (than that), (as) . . . as, (so) . . . as,</i>	<i>as.</i>	<i>as far as, so far as, in so far as, that, in that.</i>
	[Prons. or Adjs. : <i>who, which, what, whatever, whichever, whatsoever.</i> ]	[Adjs. : <i>like, unlike.</i>  [Advs. : <i>the . . . the.</i> ]		
	[Advs. : <i>how, however, howsoever.</i> ]			

## SUBORDINATE NOUN-CLAUSES.

§262. *That* is the regular conjunction used to introduce subordinate statements. It is quite empty of meaning, being used merely to show that what follows it in the sentence is subordinate to what precedes. Because of its emptiness of meaning, *that* is very often absent in this position (see Absence of Conjunctions, below).

*If* and *whether* are used to introduce dependent questions. *If* is really the conjunction expressing a condition (see below Adverb Clauses, Condition), but a question often suggests a condition, and in such cases *if* is often used when the condition-question is reported, especially after a verb in the head-clause such as *to wonder*, and sometimes verbs of asking. The following example shows the intimate relation between a question and a condition:—

I wonder *if he is coming*, because, *if he is not coming*,  
I shall have to invite someone else.

Here the *if he is not coming* is a conditional clause but expresses just the same situation as that contained in the clause *if he is coming*, which is a question (*Is he coming?*) subordinate to *I wonder*.

*Whether*, originally a pronoun 'which of two', suggests an alternative and is the regular conjunction for subordinate questions, because a question generally contains the idea of an alternative possibility. The alternative need not be expressed, and then we have a single clause beginning with *whether*, e.g.:—

He asked *whether I was coming*.

*Whether . . . or* is used in a subordinate question if the alternative has to be expressed and is the simple



opposite, generally the negative, of the first part of the sub-clause :—

He asked *whether* I was coming *or* not.

*Whether . . . or whether* is used in a sub-question if the alternative is expressed and is not the simple opposite of the first part of the sub-clause but a fresh alternative :—

He asked *whether* I was coming *or whether* I had something *else to do*.

§263. Subordinate Noun-Clauses may also be introduced by any of the Interrogative or Relative Adjectives or Pronouns (see §§135 and 153). Note here especially that *what* and *whatever*, whether used as adjectives or as pronouns, require no antecedent and no relative after them :—

He sent me *what* (or *whatever*) fruit I wanted (Adjs.).

Ask me *what* (or *whatever*) you like (Pronouns).

Sub-questions may, likewise, also be introduced by the interrogative adverbs *how*, *when*, *where*, *why*, etc. :—

He asked me *how* I was and *when* I was coming to see him.

(§§262-3). *Errors with Noun-Clauses*

Error 403. We find *that* the gentlest man to be the bravest.

This is an error due to the vernacular use of *ki*, *ke*, which has uses parallel to *that*, and to a confused construction. *That*, or any conjunction, can introduce only a clause with a finite verb (not *to be*) which is non-finite. Either the construction *that the gentlest man is*, etc., or *We find the gentlest man to be*, etc., must be used. (Indian students also very commonly make the error in speech of pausing after *that*, as they would after *ki*, *ke*; but in English the

pause, if any, is before *that*, which is felt to be very closely attached to what follows.)

Error 404. We should very much have wished if our other contemporaries had shown an equal readiness . . . .

*If* introduces only dependent questions of one kind. Here, however, no question but only a statement is implied in *our other . . . readiness*, hence *that* is required.

Error 405. We are not sure *whether* the popular party will not prefer the present automatic selection instead of some other system.

*Sure* may possibly introduce an alternative with *whether*, but here there is no alternative suggested, only the statement *the popular party will not prefer*, etc. Hence *that* is required.

Error 406. Nobody would mind *if* the villa were going to crumble away *or not*.

*Whether*, not *if*, is the proper conjunction for a sub-question—(*Is the villa going to crumble away or not?* is the original form)—if the alternative (*or not*) is expressed or even suggested.

Error 407. We are not quite sure *if* Mr. A.'s scheme of recruiting the service will be more popular than the present system.

Even if the alternative to the sub-question (*Will Mr. A.'s scheme be more popular?* etc.) is not stated, *whether* is still the proper conjunction, not *if*.

Error 408. The more reckless write *whatever* nonsense *that* comes uppermost.

The compound relative adjective *whatever* here opens the noun-clause *whatever nonsense comes uppermost*, and no relative *that* is required.

Error 409. I asked *that* why it is wrong to lie.

A common error, due to translating the use of the vernacular *ki*, *ke*, into English where *that* is not required. The interrogative adverb *why* is sufficient by itself to introduce



a noun-clause (*why it is wrong to lie*), and *no that* is necessary.

#### SUBORDINATE PREDICATIVE CLAUSES.

§264. *As*, expressing resemblance, is the regular conjunction used in predicative clauses to introduce the complement of a verb of incomplete meaning. Thus, in :—

He was *as I expected to find him*, very agitated.  
*as* introduces the clause *as...him*, which, like the adjective *agitated* which is in apposition to it, acts as an adjectival complement to the verb *was*, which would otherwise be incomplete in meaning.

§265. Other connectives for predicative clauses are relatives—whether pronouns such as *which*, *what*, or else adverbs such as *how*, *when*, *where*, *why*—e.g. :—

This is *what I thought*.

That is *how it is done*.

#### SUBORDINATE APPositionAL CLAUSES.

§266. These are fully explained in §358. *That* is the only conjunction used in subordinate appositional clauses and it acts as a subordinating word. without meaning of its own, i.e., it only shows that the clause which follows it is subordinate to the main statement. The appositional clause fills out the meaning of the word (noun or pronoun) which immediately precedes *that*, and if one adds viz., ('namely') in front of *that*, the appositional character of the clause becomes quite clear :—

What a wrong notion (viz.) *that he tried to avoid you!*  
 where the clause in italics is in apposition to the noun *notion* and fills out its meaning.

## ADJECTIVE CLAUSES.

§267. *That* is the typical conjunction connecting adjective clauses with their head-clause and is frequently used after a superlative in the head-clause:—

There are men *that one likes at the first glance*.

Wednesday was the last day *that* (i.e. on which) I saw him.

The effect of *that* is restrictive and, though when introducing adjective clauses, it is classed by some grammarians as a relative pronoun, we take it also as a conjunction in this function for reasons already given (§250). Relative *that* is the common conjunction following an antecedent which is not the name of a person, e.g., animals, things and also such pronouns and adverbs as *all*, *everything*, *none*, *nowhere*, etc.

*As* also introduces adjective clauses when either *same* or *such*, used whether as adjectives or pronouns, acts as antecedent in the head-clause:—

The *same* (adj.) man *as* called last week is at the door.

The man at the door is the *same* (pron.) *as* called last week.

§268. Adjective clauses are, of course, also introduced by relative pronouns (*who*, *which*, *whom*, *whose*, and by adverbs (*how*, *when*, *where*, *why*) when their antecedents are nouns suited to their meaning, i.e., manner to *how*, time to *when*, place to *where*, and cause or reason to *why*:—

We do not know the time *when* he left nor the reason *why* he left.

I remember the house *where* I was born.

(§§267, 268) *Errors in Adjective Clauses*

Error 410. This is the first time in the history of India *when* a British King is crowned in the ancient capital of Hindostan.



*When* is wrong here although *time* is the antecedent, because *time* here means an 'occasion' to which the 'crowning' is restricted; therefore *that* is required.

Error 411. It can hardly be expected that we shall get all *what* we want.

With such an antecedent as *all*, relative *that* is the proper conjunction for an adjectival clause (*we want*), not *what*.

Error 412. The peasant has no cares *that* mar the happiness of the rich.

Only in a restrictive adverbial clause (e.g. : *He has no cares that I know of*) can *that* correspond to *no* in the head-clause. But here we have an adjectival clause requiring the pronoun *none* as antecedent to relative *that*, i.e. *has none of the cares that mar*, etc.

Error 413. The same terms offered to the Kathis were finally accepted by their opponents.

Here the writer has missed out the relative *as* (required by *same*) to the adjective clause *offered to the Kathis*, which also needs *were* to complete the predicate, hence *The same terms as were offered to the Kathis were finally*, etc.

Error 414. Even *such* a mighty intellectual giant *like* Shankaracharya.

With the antecedent *such*, relative *as* is required, i.e. *such a mighty intellectual giant as Shankaracharya*. The adjective *like* is impossible.

Error 415. Nowhere else is the foreigner treated with *such* courtesy *than* in Ceylon.

The conjunction *than*, expressing inequality (*greater than*) is impossible with the antecedent *such*, expressing resemblance. Relative *as* is required. (Of course, *with more courtesy than in Ceylon* would be quite possible.)

## ADVERB CLAUSES.

§269. Two of the conjunctions here, viz., *that*, *as*, will appear under several heads according to their several uses, which are therefore recapitulated at the

end of this section under the head of the particular conjunction itself. First, however, the individual conjunctions are explained according to the kind of adverb clause which they introduce.

### CLAUSES OF TIME.

§270. Conjunctions of Time express the time-relation between the actions of the head-clause and of the sub-clause. The head-action may either (a) precede, or (b) be simultaneous in time with the sub-action.

§271. (a) *Before* expresses that the action of the head-clause precedes that of the sub-clause, generally with an interval of time :—

Lock the front door *before* you go to bed.

*No sooner . . . than, hardly . . . when* are correlatives, of which the adverbial part (*no sooner, hardly*) goes with the head-clause and gives a point of time upon which the action of the sub-clause immediately follows, introduced by the conjunction-part (*than, when*) :—

*No sooner* (or *hardly, or scarcely*) had the chairman sat down, *than* (or *when*) a tumult broke out in the meeting.

§272. (b) *After, as soon as, since* all express that the action of the head-clause succeeds that of the sub-clause, but that the two actions are distinct from each other.

*After* expresses that an interval of time occurs between the head- and sub-actions :—

He arrived *after* I had left.



*As soon as* expresses that no such interval occurs (so also does the adverb *immediately*):—

I will send you a wire *as soon as* (or *immediately*) I arrive.

*Since* gives a point of time in the past after which the head-clause measures an interval:—

*Since you left the house* no one has lived in it.

§273. (a) and (b) *Till* and *until* can express either precedence or succession of the head-action. The reason for this is that these conjunctions give a point of time—in the past or future—at which the head-action either begins or ends. The beginning of the head-action is expressed by a negative, the end by a positive:—

(Beginning) He did not arrive *till I had gone* (Past).  
Don't come *till I call you* (Future).

(End) There was a great deal of noise *till the headmaster came in* (Past).  
I shall have no peace of mind *till this work is finished* (Future).

§274. (c) *As*, *now (that)*, *that*, *while* and *whilst* all express simultaneity of the two actions, but are, again, distinguished from each other.

*As* expresses simple simultaneity of time—whether past, present or future—between the actions of the head- and sub-clause:—

*As I came in by one door*, he left by another.

*Now*, used with or without subordinating *that*, expresses simultaneity of time between the two actions, but only in the present time. *As* can, of course, be used instead of *now (that)*:—

*Now that* (or *as*) *you are here*, do show me that card-trick you told me of.

*While* or *whilst* expresses simultaneity but also that the sub-clause, which it introduces, gives a period of time within or during which the head-action takes place :—

Do not talk to me *while I am writing*.

§275. Another connective of Time is the adverb *when*, which belongs entirely to the sub-clause :—

Wipe your shoes *when you come in*.

(§§269-275). *Errors in Adverb Clauses*

#### CLAUSES OF TIME.

Error 416. The collection cannot be made *before* the Puja holidays are over.

Here *till* is required, not *before*, because *the Puja holidays are over* gives a point of time in the future when the head-action, i.e. the making of the 'collection', begins.

Error 417. *Till* Mr. R. was in Poona, progress was more or less satisfactory, but afterwards it began to slacken.

*Till* and *while* are often confused by Indian students. Here *while* is required because it gives a period of time (Mr. R.'s being in Poona) during which the simultaneous action of 'progress was satisfactory'.

#### CLAUSES OF PLACE.

§276. These have no pure conjunctions to introduce them, but are opened by adverbs expressive of place, either simple in form (*where*, *whence*) or compounded with *-ever*, *-soever* (*wherever*, *whencesoever*, etc.) :—

He was well received by the people *wherever he went*.

#### CLAUSES OF CAUSE OR REASON.

§277. There are definite shades of meaning, and therefore of use, between the various conjunctions



employed to introduce sub-clauses which give a cause or reason for the event or statement in the head-clause.

*Because* is the conjunction with the most general meaning of cause and therefore the commonest used in this connexion.

*As*, expressing similarity, suggests a resemblance or agreement between the idea in the sub-clause and that in the head-clause, hence that the action of the head-clause is due to its agreement with the idea of the sub-clause (cf. the use of the French *comme*):—

*As we are all present*, the business of the meeting can now begin.

*For* suggests a logical reason for the event in the head-clause, or else gives a proof of that event, and therefore explains and accounts for the main event:—

We could not begin the meeting *for everyone was not present*.

*Since* expresses originally past time (see Clauses of Time) and therefore suggests a fixed fact, as of something past and settled, which conditions and gives a cause or reason for the head-action:—

*Since it's raining and we can't go out*, let's play table tennis indoors.

*That*, when used as a conjunction introducing a noun-clause after words expressing emotion such as *sorry*, *vexed*, *delighted*, etc., gives the reason for that state of mind and therefore acts as a kind of conjunction of reason:—

I was vexed *that he did not accept the invitation*.

in which the reason for the 'vexation' is contained in the *that*-clause in italics. This kind of clause might, therefore, be called either a noun-clause object to the adjective *vexed* or an adverb clause of reason subordinate to the same adjective.

*In that* and *seeing that* are compound conjunctions, made up of a preposition (*in*) or a present participle (*seeing*) and meaningless *that* expressing subordination of the following clause. The addition of *that* makes it possible for *in* and *seeing* to introduce a clause with a finite verb.

*In that* gives the specific circumstance which accounts for the head-action. It is a rather 'literary' conjunction :—

Petrol is a dangerous article for home use *in that it is so volatile and inflammable*.

*Seeing that* suggests prevision of a circumstance which controls action and therefore gives a guiding reason for the head-event :—

It will not be worth holding a meeting *seeing that so few are likely to attend*.

#### (§277). Error with Clauses of Cause or Reason

Error 418. The match was broken off *on account of* the ornaments to be given were not forthcoming.

*On account of* is a preposition, not a conjunction, and introduces a non-finite phrase (i.e. *not being forthcoming*) with a gerund-object (*forthcoming*). Here *because*, the conjunction, is required.

#### CLAUSES OF PURPOSE.

§278. *That* can introduce a clause giving what comes next after the action of the head-clause, and what comes next may be the purpose or end of the main action :—

Men have to work *that they may live*.

*In order that* gives, more clearly than *that*, the order or sequence of events, that in the head-clause coming



first and that in the sub-clause next, and suggests that the sub-action is the purpose of the main action :—

We worked hard *in order that* we might finish in time.

*So that* suggests an intensity (*so*) of action in the head-clause which has the purpose of producing an event in the sub-clause :—

We worked till late at night *so that* everything should be ready for the show next day.

There is little difference in meaning between these three conjunctions, save that *in order that* and *so that* are more emphatic than *that*.

*Lest* suggests avoidance, and therefore follows, especially but not exclusively, negative verbs or words expressive of emotions that seek avoidance of something, such as *fear*, *anxiety*, etc. If *lest* follows a verb, negative or positive, it means *so that . . . not*, e.g. :—

He did not tell her all the facts *lest* she should be too upset (i.e. so that she should not, etc.).

I was anxious *lest* you might have had an accident in the fog.

§279. Notice that all these conjunctions of purpose introduce a clause with a Modal form of the verb (*may*, *might*, *should*), which is natural seeing that purpose is an idea in the mind, not an actual deed.

§280. *And* appears as a subordinating conjunction of purpose only in Apparent Co-ordinate Sentences (see §128), e.g. :—

You should send *and* fetch him.  
which means *to fetch him*, expressing purpose.

(§§278-280). *Error in Clauses of Purpose*

Error 419. He was afraid *because* she would be tired. .

*Lest*, the conjunction here required, is ill understood by Indian students. It expresses avoidance of something that might happen and goes well with verbs or adjectives expressing anxiety or fear. *Afraid* can also take a noun-clause with *that* (*He was afraid that she would be tired*).

#### CLAUSES OF RESULT.

§281. *So that*, used with the two words together as a compound, is the conjunction expressing a result in the sub-clause which follows as a consequence of the action in the head-clause, e.g. :—

Shirin polished the brass pot *so that it looked like gold*.

*So . . . that*, with the words separated, is the form of this conjunction, used as a correlative, when it follows rather upon an adjective or adverb than a verb in the head-clause. In this case the adverbial part *so* precedes the adjective or adverb in the head-clause and the conjunction *that* acts, as usual, as subordinating conjunction, e.g. :—

In India the stars are *so* bright *that one can almost read by them*.

*Such . . . that* is another correlative of result, used when the sub-clause is dependent either upon a noun, qualified or unqualified, in the head-clause—in which case the *such* qualifies the noun—or upon *such* itself, which is then a pronoun, e.g. :—

He has shown me *such* (adj.) kindness *that I shall feel always indebted to him*.

His kindness to me has been *such* (pron.) *that I shall feel always indebted to him*.

*But*, or *but that*, as a conjunction of result follows a head-clause expressing a statement that is either negative or approaches a negative in that it contains



a dominant word such as *few*, *hardly*, *scarcely*, etc. of negative tendency, e.g.:—

There is *no* man so wise *but* he sometimes errs.

He is *hardly* so weak *but* that he *can* work if he wants to.

§282. Notice that *so that*, when used to express result, and the other conjunctions of result introduce a clause with a non-modal form of the verb (*looked*, *can*, *shall*, *errs*), which is to be expected because the sub-clause expresses a fact resulting from the head-clause.

§283. *And* and *or* appear as subordinating conjunctions of result only in Apparent Co-ordinate Sentences, e.g.:—

He has tried often *and* (i.e. the result has been that he) *failed*.

Hurry up *or* (i.e. the result will be that) *you'll be late*.

§284. Other connectives of result are the adverbs *accordingly*, *consequently*, *hence*, *so*, *then*, *therefore*, *whence*, *wherefore*. Of these *therefore* and *so* are the commonest, expressing simply that the action in the sub-clause is a direct consequence or result of the action in the head-clause. They bear much the same meaning as each other, but the use of *therefore* is more literary, that of *so* more conversational, e.g.:—

Peaceful persuasion is insufficient, *therefore* force must be used.

It's raining hard, *so* the match can't be played to-day.

*Then* means 'in that case', and introduces a clause of consequence or result depending on a state or action in the head-clause which contains a kind of condition necessitating this result. *Then*, used in this way, introduces a co-ordinating clause, e.g.:—

Are you ready? *Then* come along!

*Hence* means 'from this fact', and expresses the consequence of one fact from another, e.g. :—

He was uncertain what to say, *hence* his silence.

*Whence* and *wherefore* mean, respectively, 'and hence', 'and therefore', and the clauses they introduce are, in consequence of the 'and', clearly co-ordinate with the main clause.

*Consequently* means 'as a consequence' of the action in the head-clause, and is a variant for *therefore*.

(§§281-284). *Error in Clauses of Result*

Error 420. There are people who are *so* blind as they will not see.

*They will not see* is a clause expressing the result of being *so blind*, therefore *that*, not *as*, is required.

CLAUSES OF CONDITION.

§285. *If* is the regular conjunction expressing a condition :—

*If you come to-morrow*, remember to bring your violin with you.

*If not* and *unless* are used to express a negative condition. If the conditional clause expresses a superlative, *if not* must be used, not *unless*, e.g. :—

I can't do it *unless* you help me (or *if you do not help me*).

The medlar is a fruit which is not edible *if not* rotten (or *unless* rotten).

Socrates was the wisest, *if not* the handsomest, of the Greeks (not *unless*).

*But* and *but that* are used also as literary conjunctions of negative condition especially *but* not *exclusively*.



sively after a negative head-clause, and are equal to *if not* :—

I should *not* have succeeded *but that* you were there to help me.

*Whether, whether . . . or, whether . . . or whether* are used as conjunctions of condition in the same way as has been explained above for noun-clauses (§262). They express alternative conditions, whether stated or not :—

You will have to see him, *whether* you like it or not.

*Provided that*, and also *supposing that*, on the hypothesis that, etc., are compound conjunctions of condition, made up of a participle or prepositional adjunct and the subordinating (empty) conjunction *that*. Their use is controlled by the meaning of the participle or adjunct, which sufficiently explains itself. The participle compounds can also be used without *that*, but not so the adjunct compound :—

*Provided (that) he agrees*, I don't mind.

#### CLAUSES OF CONCESSION.

§286. A concession is a fact or supposition, granted or taken for granted, which limits the action in the head-clause, generally adversely. A condition, if it is admitted, i.e., allowed to be true by the speaker, may be a concession.

*Though* is the most frequent conjunction introducing a concession, because it suggests the possibility of a fact or supposition adverse to and yet allowing the action in the head-clause. It can introduce all kinds of concessive clauses (admitted, open, or rejected concession) and can come either first in its clause or

second after a part of the predicate which has been put first for emphasis (i.e., front-shifted) :—

*Though he had little ability, he made up for that with determination.*

*Small though he was, he had plenty of courage.*

*Although* has the same meaning as *though*, but a little more force. It must, however, come first in its clause.

*If*, the conjunction of condition, can introduce a clause of concession, but only a clause of admitted concession, i.e., if the action in the sub-clause is allowed by the speaker, to be a fact, and *if* comes to mean 'if it be granted that'. *If* is usually replaced by *though* if a part of the predicate is front-shifted, and by *even if* when the admitted concession is extreme. *If*, as a conjunction of concession, has, therefore, a very limited use because with an *if*-clause the hearer may be confused and in doubt whether a condition is laid down or a fact is conceded. An example of a clear concession with *if* is :—

*If a boy is hardworking in class, he may still have no luck in exams.*

*Even if* suggests the extreme of admitted concession :—

*Even if a boy does his best, he may still have no luck in exams.*

With front-shifting of a part of the predicate, *though* is usual :

*Hardworking though a boy is, he may still need luck in exams.*

*As*, suggesting agreement with an idea or statement put forward, may act as a conjunction of admitted concession where there is no dispute about the truth of the action in the sub-clause. *As* always comes



second in a concessive clause after a front-shifted part of the predicate :—

*Try as he might*—and he did try hard—he could not succeed.

*Tall as he is*, your brother is not so tall as mine.

*For all that* and *granted that* are conjunctions of concession compounded of an adverb adjunct or a past participle and subordinating *that*. The *that* may be omitted. *For all (that)* is used only in admitted concession and suggests inadequacy of the admitted fact in the sub-clause :—

*For all (that) he was so big and strong*, he lost the fight.

*Granted that* gives its own meaning and can be used to introduce any kind of concessive clause.

§287. Other connectives introducing concessive clauses are the simple pronouns or pronominal adjectives *who*, *which*, *what*, and the compounds *whichever*, *whatever*, *whatsoever*, also the adverbs *how*, *however*, *howsoever*. Of these, the simple words (*who*, *which*, *what*, *how*) can come only second in the sub-clause, like *as* above, and are preceded by a plain infinitive as part of the predicate :—

*Doubt me who may*, I am telling the truth.

*Do what you like*, you will never succeed.

*Twist them how you will*, his words mean only one thing.

The compounds (*whichever*, *whatever*, *whatsoever*, *however*, *howsoever*) may also be used second in the above manner, but the commoner construction with them is to put them first in the sub-clause :—

*However hard you try*, you will never succeed.

I don't like this doctor, *whatever his qualifications are*.

(§§286-287). *Error in Clauses of Concession*

Error 421. *If* Surajuddaulah had tyrannised over his subjects ever so much, Lord Clive would not have joined in the conspiracy to dethrone him.

*If* can only introduce a concessive clause if the concession is admitted and *if* = 'granted that'. But here the extreme tyranny of Surajuddaulah is not admitted; it is regarded only as a supposition conceded for the sake of argument. Hence, *though* is required.

Error 422. Any sum, *however* small *though* it may be, will be helpful.

A concessional clause may be sufficiently introduced by the compound adverb *however*. No *though* is here required.

## CLAUSES OF COMPARISON.

§288. *As*, the relative, is the principal conjunction of comparison, since it suggests resemblance. It is generally used as the conjunctive part of a correlative conjunction, the adverbial part being either *as* or *so* or *not so*. Used alone, it suggests resemblance of the statement in the head-clause to the statement in the sub-clause, e.g. :—

*As I expected*, he has not fulfilled his promise.

Lack of resemblance is suggested by *not as*, e.g. :—

He has fulfilled his promise, *not as I expected*.

*As . . . as* suggests simple equality between the two things compared :—

Give the boy *as* many mangoes *as he can carry*.

*So . . . as* suggests a high degree (*so*) of quality or quantity in the head-clause comparable (*as*) to something or someone in the sub-clause, e.g. :—

*So* tolerant a ruler *as Akbar* is uncommon in history.

He did not do *so* well *as I expected*.



*Not so . . . as*, the reverse of *so . . . as*, suggests an inferior quantity or quality in the head-clause to a compared quantity or quality in the sub-clause :—

The mangoes are *not so fine as they were last year*.

*Than* is the conjunction of comparison to use when inequality is suggested. It follows a comparative in the head-clause :—

He has *more sense than I thought*.

*Rather than that, sooner than that*, which are compound conjunctions of comparison made up of an adverb (*rather, sooner*), a relative (*than*) and the subordinating conjunction *that*, suggest preference of something in the head-clause to something in the sub-clause, and mean the same as each other :—

*Rather than (or sooner than) that there should be a contest for the chairmanship*, Mr. X. is withdrawing his candidature.

§289. *As if*, a compound conjunction made up of two conjunctions *as* and *if*, suggests both a comparison (*as*) and a condition (*if*). In practice, the clause which would express the comparison after *as* is absent, and only the clause expressing the condition after *if* is stated. The clause which expresses the comparison would, if stated, have to be supplied by using, again, with the help of *should, would*, the verbal form in the head-clause upon which the *as if*-clause is dependent. For example :—

He lay *as if dead*.

expresses only the condition (*dead*) after the conjunction of condition (*if*). If the comparison after *as* is to be expressed it must be supplied by means of the verb (*lay*) upon which the *as if*-clause is dependent, but with the help of *should* or *would* :—

He lay *as (he would lie) if dead*.

The same applies if the verbal form, on which the *as if*-clause is dependent, is a non-finite form, i.e., infinitive or participle, e.g. :—

He was seen *to tremble as if afraid*.

We saw a crowd *collected as if round a street accident*, which, if the clauses of comparison were supplied, would read :—

He was seen *to tremble as* (he would tremble) *if afraid*.

We saw a crowd *collected as* (it would collect) *if* (they were present) *round a street accident*.

It is noticeable that not only the whole of the comparative part but also the subject and verbal part of the predicate of the conditional part is absent, i.e., *if dead*=*if* (he were) *dead*, *as if afraid*=*as if* (he were) *afraid*. That is, *as if* often introduces free adjuncts (cf. *dead*, *afraid*, *round a street accident*, (§§350-1). *As if* can, of course, also introduce a full clause, e.g. :—

He ran *as if he were being chased by a bull*, which means *He ran as* (he would run) *if*, etc.

In one set phrase, viz., *as it were*, *as* has the force of *as if*, inherited from Shakespeare's time, e.g. :—

The snow covered the hills with a shroud, *as it were*.

Comparisons introduced by *as if* are recognized as only resemblances, not facts. *He lay as if dead* means, for example, that 'he' was not dead but only appeared to be. The fact of death is rejected, and therefore *as if* introduces a Rejected Comparison.

*As though* bears much the same meaning and is used in the same way as *as if*. The difference, such as it is, between the two is the same as that between *if* and *though*, viz., that *as if* suggests a temporary acceptance of the comparison introduced, while *as though* rejects the comparison from the first. The



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difference is shown by the comments in brackets after the following sentences :—

He spoke to me *as if he were my father* (which he was not, but I liked what he said).

He spoke to me *as though he were my father* (which he was not, and I did not like what he said).

§290. Other connectives introducing comparisons are (a) the pair of adverbs *the . . . the*, and (b) the adjectives *like* and *unlike*.

(a) The adverbs *the . . . the* introduce both sub-clause and head-clause and express a proportion between something in the sub-clause (which generally comes first) and something in the head-clause :—

*The more* I saw of him (sub-cl.), *the less* I liked him.

(b) The adjectives *like*, *unlike* cannot introduce a clause but only govern a noun-object, together with which they make up an adverb adjunct, generally to the verb in the sentence :—

Goldsmith wrote *like an angel* but talked *like poor Poll*. in which *like an angel* is an adverb adjunct of comparison to the verb *wrote*, and *like poor Poll* the same to the verb *talked*.

(§§288-290). *Errors in Clauses of Comparison*

Here the various uses of *as*, in suggesting resemblance or comparison, may be misunderstood and therefore confused.

Error 423. All that they need is sufficient general education *as* to open their eyes.

No *as* is required here, since the adjective *sufficient* takes the infinitive with *to* as its adverb adjunct directly, i.e., *sufficient general education to open their eyes*.

Error 424. The critic has to gather, *as best as* he can, the blossoms in this poem.

Here there is confusion between two equally possible constructions—*as well as he can* and *as best he can*. In the former, *as well* belongs to the head-verb *to gather*, and *as he can* is the clause of comparison; in the latter, *as best he can* makes the clause of comparison, in which *as* is the relative conjunction and *best* is an adverb qualifying the verb *can*. The difficulty is due to the position of the adverb *best*, which in a clause with *can* (or *could*, *may*, *might*) may either be put next its verb (*as he best can*) or next the relative conjunction (*as best he can*) and, in the latter position, is easily confused with the compound conjunction *as well as*.

Error 425. It is, *what* one may say, poetry in prose.

*What* cannot introduce a clause of comparison. *As* (*one may say*) is required, since simple resemblance between the statement in the head-clause (*It is poetry in prose*) and that in the sub-clause (*one may say*) is to be suggested.

Error 426. *Unlike* in India, they had no caste system.

*Unlike* (or *like*) cannot introduce a clause, even one in which the verb is absent. If lack of resemblance is to be expressed, then *not as* must be used, and, if the verb needs supplying to make the sentence clear, a suitable part of *to be* may be inserted, e.g.:—*Not as it is in India, they had*, etc. In many cases, however, no verb needs to be supplied.

Error 427. There is no movement *so* inflaming *than* the boycott agitation.

The correlative *so* suggests resemblance and equality, and therefore takes *as* for its conjunction-part, not *than*, which suggests inequality.

Error 428. *So* recent a poet *like* Robert Bridges.

*As*, not *like*, is the correlative of *so*.

Error 429. Nothing is *more* deplorable *as* an inconsistency of this kind.

*As* suggests equality, but here we have inequality suggested by the comparative in the head-clause *more*



*deplorable*. Therefore *than* is required as the conjunction of comparison.

Error 430. The forest round about was a green sea,  
*as if it were*.

Here we should have *as it were*, without the *if*, which is not required in this set expression.

Error 431. Still she was reported *as if* to avoid the old doctor in the village.

*As if* cannot here be used, since the main verb (*reported*) could not be supplied after the *as* to make up the sense of the whole:—*Still she was reported as she would be reported if to avoid*, etc. is manifestly absurd. The writer wants to express apparent action, and the best way is to write *Still she was reported apparently to avoid*, etc.

Error 432. We think *as if* he takes a particular interest in describing their manners and customs.

*As if* gives Indian students a great deal of trouble. The explanation of its proper use in §289 should be read carefully and practised. Here it would be as absurd as in the previous error to fill out the meaning by writing *We think as we would think if he takes*, etc. The way out here, as in other similar cases, is to use the verb *to seem* in order to express appearance, e.g.:—*We think he seems to take a particular interest*, etc.

#### CLAUSES OF MANNER.

§291. *As*, which suggests resemblance, is the one conjunction used to introduce clauses of manner, and suggests resemblance of manner:—

He talked at home *as he would at a public meeting*.

#### CLAUSES OF RESTRICTION.

§292. The name of these clauses explains that their meaning limits the extent of the action in the head-clause.

*That* is used as a conjunction of restriction only after a negative, and generally after *not*, e.g. :—

I have *not* met your friend *that* I know of.

*As far as*, *so far as* are composed of two adverbs (*as far*, *so far*) and the relative conjunction *as*. They are the most usual conjunctions of restriction, as they are the clearest in meaning :—

I have not met your friend *so* (or *as*) *far as* I know.

*In*, the preposition, is used with either of the above conjunctions when a particular form of restriction is to be indicated. The use of these restrictive phrase-conjunctions with *in* is literary, not conversational, and the adverbial part is generally written as one word. *In that* suggests a restricted direction, e.g. :—

Victoria was a great queen *in that she* cared for the most distant of her subjects.

*Inasfar as*, *insofar as* suggest a restricted extent, e.g. :—

*Insofar as it is possible*, a conciliation of communal interests should be attempted.

#### (§292). *Error in Clauses of Restriction*

Error 433. The building is Roman *in so far* it has semicircular arches.

Here the conjunctival part *as* of the compound conjunction *insofar as* has been wrongly omitted. (*Insofar*, *inasfar* are more usually written as one word.)

#### ABSENCE OF CONJUNCTIONS.

§293. There are cases where no conjunction at all is used, but the head-clause and sub-clause are placed in direct contact with each other. This takes place only with a subordinate clause, not with a co-ordinate, and only when the sub-clause follows the head-clause. Such sub-clauses go by the name of Contact Clauses,



and, if a conjunction were used to connect the clauses, it would invariably be *that*.

Contact Clauses are found :—

(a) very commonly as (object) Noun Clauses if they follow the head-clause without a pause. Contact is frequent in statement-clauses after verbs (except those taking prepositional objects) :—

I told him *I couldn't see him at that hour.*  
or adjectives :—

I am certain *he was there.*  
but less frequent after nouns :—

I had no idea *he was so clever.*

(b) very commonly as restrictive adjective clauses, whether the connecting word (*that*), if used, would be the object (plain or prepositional) or nominal predicate or adverb adjunct or predicative adjunct of the sub-clause :—

That's the kind of man *I like* (Plain Object absent).

This is the book *I was looking for* (Prepositional Object absent).

X. is not the fine cricketer *he used to be* (Nominal Predicate absent).

Sunday's the day *one visits one's friends* (Adverb Adjunct absent).

He has proved himself the gentleman *I thought him* (Predicative Adjunct absent).

(c) occasionally as adverbial clauses of result, but this usage is only in conversation :—

He got so proud *he wouldn't speak to us.*

§294. Other cases in which no conjunction is used are the following, which are not Contact Clauses :—

(d) Interrogative object-clauses given in the form of direct speech ; (e) adverb clauses of condition or concession in which the order of subject and verb in the

clause is inverted. These require a little further explanation:—

(d) Normally, a question in indirect or reported speech is put in normal order of subject and verb, and the verb is made to agree with the verb in the head-clause in person and time. There is, however, a very colloquial way of speaking, in which the question is left in its original form in indirect speech, almost as if it were a quotation, although it is not one. This happens specially after the verbs *to ask, enquire, wonder*, e.g.:—

I wonder *was he telling me the truth?*

We enquired *was she at home?*

which, put normally, would be:—

I wondered whether he was telling me the truth.

We enquired if she was at home.

It is seen that, with the former method of direct reporting of a question, no conjunction is used. The method is blamed by strict grammarians, but is nevertheless quite common in speech.

(e) It is now a little old-fashioned, but still possible, to say:—

*Were I you*, I wouldn't do it.

instead of *If I were you*, etc., so that no conjunction is used before the clause of condition (*were I you*), but the fact of condition is shown by inverting the order of subject (*I*) and verb (*were*). It is a method quite commonly used in literary writing, e.g.:—

*Should he fail*, there would be no disgrace in it.

It is noticeable that always the subjunctive (*were*) or modal preterite (*should, could, did, had*, etc.) is used in this construction.

Similarly, and very frequently in literary English but scarcely at all in conversation, the above construction appears also in clauses of concession, especially



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with such adverbs as *only*, *but*, *never*, etc. in the sub-clause, e.g. :—

*Be it ever so humble*, there's no place like home.

## EXERCISES ON CHAPTER XI

## CONJUNCTIONS

After reading again carefully the paragraphs indicated below, correct any errors in the form or use of conjunctions in the sentences given:—

## §§255-259. CO-ORDINATING.

1. It is urged that the Kumbakonam Swami, but not the Sringeri Swami, is the appellate authority.
2. This is a long-felt want which has happily come to be recognized both by the people as well as by the Government.
3. Nature to this poet was nor love, nor thought, but law.
4. The case presents a most distressing situation, both for the landlord as well as the tenant.

## §§260-292. SUBORDINATING.

§§262-263. *Noun Clauses.*

1. He asked her if she wants to take a walk with him on the seashore.
2. We are not sure if any useful purpose will be served by this meeting.
3. They are sceptical if the thin coating of English education will not soon wear out.

§§267-268. *Adjective Clauses.*

1. This is the least what Mr. Morley's writings teach us.
2. It does, judging from what I see here, all what such brotherhoods do elsewhere.
3. The peasant has no cares that mar the happiness of the rich.

§§269-292. *Adverb Clauses.*§§270-273. *Time.*

1. The Dominions need to be defended by the British Navy, for, till the command of the sea is secure, no Power would venture to attack them.

2. Why are our graduates not employed no sooner than they leave the University?

3. The Great Powers of Europe are not going to co-operate till this greed for materials lasts.

§§278-280. *Purpose.*

1. There is a panic among conservative people that changes will do harm.

2. The executive official is anxious if lenient treatment will not encourage the criminal in his evil ways.

3. Our anxiety is that this bad system may be perpetuated.

§§281-284. *Result.*

The Americans keep up the price of everything so high as no other nation can approach it.

§§288-290. *Comparison.*

However harsh as it may sound, there is no doubt of their being responsible for their own losses.

§§286-287. *Concession.*

1. It would be difficult to compress more interesting information in a little book as this author has done.

2. Rather than doubters should sneer at the suggestion, let them consider the unhappy alternative.

## TEST PAPERS 11—(CONJUNCTIONS)

## II A

(1) Name the various parts of speech which may connect clauses, i.e. are Connectives, and give one sentence of your own to illustrate the use of *each* part of speech.



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(2) In what way is a Conjunction distinguished from all other Connectives? Illustrate with two or three sentences of your own construction.

(3) Define a Co-ordinating Conjunction. Give six examples of Co-ordinating Conjunctions, and use one Simple Co-ordinating Conjunction and one pair of Correlative Co-ordinating Conjunctions in sentences of your own.

## II B

(4) What is a Subordinating Conjunction? Name the various kinds of clauses which they can introduce and give, in sentences of your own, one example of *each* kind of subordinate clause with a conjunction suitable to it.

(5) What kinds of clauses can the conjunction *as* introduce? Give one example of your own to illustrate *each* kind.

## II C

(6) Correct any errors in the use of conjunctions in the following noun clauses:—

1. Opinions may differ on the point if that is the goal to keep in view and if it would be practicable to reach it.
2. We are not sure if this method will prove more useful.
3. I wanted to find out that my pupils understood me or not.
4. It is curious to find people imagining as if they had no duty to their country.

(7) What conjunctions are used to introduce Adjective Clauses? Correct the following adjective clauses and state, in *each* case, what part of speech has been used instead of the correct conjunction:—

1. They have the assurance in this matter of such responsible leaders like Sir H. S.
2. Such Hindus who can claim only a surface acquaintance with their religion will support what I say.

3. Only such subjects can be considered which the Secretary of State likes.

4. We have many crying needs, such, for example, the sanitary improvement of India.

## II D

(8) Correct any errors in the use of conjunctions in the following Adverbial Clauses of Comparison:—

1. We are pleased that so conservative a sovereign like the Maharajah should have gone to England.

2. There is no country which has had a longer record of glorious deeds behind it as our Motherland.

3. No one has been so over-zealous to demolish these ancient temples.

4. These obstacles to a correct census have been overcome as best as Mr. G. could.

5. The appointment comes to Mr. D. unsought, unlike in the case of some others.

6. Men and women are often prevented by their social system from developing, as best they can, their own powers for service.

(9) Explain carefully the proper meaning and use of *as if*, with two examples of your own. Correct also errors in the use of *as if* in the following sentences:—

1. She had no sympathy with men and as if she used to avoid them.

2. He used to give away everything and, when as if nothing was left, he even borrowed for social purposes.

3. We think as if he takes a particular interest in describing the manners and customs of this aboriginal tribe.

4. It was now as if her words stole into the minds of the villagers.



## CHAPTER XII

### MAKING WORDS

#### WAYS OF MAKING WORDS.

§295. There are two ways of increasing the number of words in a language :—

1. Borrowing complete words from another language (Loan-words).

2. Making fresh words from those already existing in the language (Word-Formation).

The first of these ways belongs to the study of historical grammar and will, therefore, not be considered here.

§296. The second method, which does concern us, may be followed in many ways, of which the following are the three principal :—

(a) by Derivation, i.e., by attaching a prefix to the beginning or a suffix to the end of an existing word ;

(b) by Composition, i.e., by putting together two or more existing words ;

(c) by Conversion, i.e., by using a word normally used in one grammatical function, e.g., a noun, in another grammatical function, as a verb.

#### *Derivation*

§297. This method, by prefix and suffix, includes Comparison (of adjectives and adverbs), since a *fresher* egg is quite a different thing from a *fresh* egg and both of these might be quite different from the *freshest* egg out of a dozen. Comparison is, then,

first considered, then other methods by prefix and suffix.

### COMPARISON.

§298. Setting aside those adjectives and adverbs which, by their meaning,—e.g., *almighty*, *instant*, *circular*, *immediately*—cannot be compared, these parts of speech form the comparative and superlative in either of two ways:—

(1) by adding the suffixes *-er*, *-est* to the positive form;

(2) by putting *more*, *most* before the positive.

§299. (1) *-Er*, *-est* are added, in general, to adjectives and adverbs stressed on the last syllable, i.e., to:—

(a) monosyllabics and those ending in a 'murmur-diphthong':—

<i>strong</i>	<i>stronger</i>	<i>strongest</i>
<i>sure</i>	<i>surer</i>	<i>surest</i>

(b) disyllabics and trisyllabics stressed on the last syllable:—

<i>profuse</i>	<i>profuser</i>	<i>profusest</i>
<i>severe</i>	<i>severer</i>	<i>severest</i>
<i>insincere</i>	<i>insincerer</i>	<i>insincerest</i>

(c) words with weak last syllables which almost lose sound in the comparative and superlative, i.e., adjectives and adverbs ending in *-le*, *-er*, *-y*, *-ow*, *-some*; some in *-ed*, *-id*; and a few isolated ones, viz., *civil*, *common*, *pleasant*, *unpleasant*, *quiet*, *stupid*:—

<i>feeble</i>	<i>feebler</i>	<i>feeblest</i>
<i>tender</i>	<i>tenderer</i>	<i>tenderest</i>
<i>silly</i>	<i>sillier</i>	<i>silliest</i>
<i>hollow</i>	<i>hollower</i>	<i>hollowest</i>
<i>handsome</i>	<i>handsomer</i>	<i>handsomest</i>
<i>pallid</i>	<i>pallider</i>	<i>pallidest</i>
<i>wicked</i>	<i>wickedder</i>	<i>wickedest</i>



(Exceptions to the above, i.e. taking *more*, *most*, not *-er*, *-est* are:—(i) a few monosyllables (*right*, *wrong*, *wan*, *real*); (ii) disyllabics in *a-* used only predicatively (*afraid*, *alive*, *alone*, *aware*) and some others, especially in *-er* (*antique*, *bizarre*, *burlesque*; *eager*, *proper*). Some adjectives—especially in *-able*, *-ed*, *-id*, *-ing*, *-ful*—will take *-est* but not *-er*.)

§300. (2) *More*, *most* is used by the remaining adjectives and adverbs, but it is to be noted that compound adjectives, while generally taking *more*, *most*:—

*long-lived*                      *more long-lived*                      *most long-lived*

will take *-er*, *-est* if the first part is still felt to have a separate function or meaning:—

*ill-paid*                      *worse-paid*                      *worst-paid*  
*well-known*                      *better-known*                      *best-known*  
*old-established*                      *older-established*                      *oldest-established*

§301. Irregular comparison is found with about a dozen of the commonest adjectives and adverbs, some with a different root in comparative and superlative from the positive, some with two forms—both from the positive—for comparative and superlative:—

good well	}	better	best	bad(ly) evil ill	}	worse	worst		
much many	}	more	most	little	{	less lesser	}	least	
far	{	farther further	{	farthest furthest	near	nearer	nearest next		
late	{	later latter	{	latest last	old	{	older elder	{	oldest eldest

The double forms of the last four words for comparative and superlative are, of course, distinct in meaning from each other.

SUPERLATIVE IN *-most*.

§302. There is also a superlative suffix *-most* composed of an ancient superlative suffix *-ma* (still seen in the *m* of *former*, from *fore*) and the superlative *-est*. It expresses extreme position in place, and may be attached to some adjectives (*backmost*) but particularly to comparatives (*innermost*, *outermost*, *hindmost*), to some nouns (*topmost*, *bottommost*, *centremost*, *rearmost*), and to certain adverbs (*foremost*, *inmost*, *hindmost*).

*Uses of the Comparative.*

§303. The Comparative has four uses, of which the first is by far the commonest :—

(1) Relative Comparative, to express a higher degree of some quality in one person or thing than in another, or in the same person or thing at different times or under different circumstances :—

He is *taller* than his father.

He looks *healthier* than when I saw him last.

(2) Comparative of Proportion, to express along with *the* that two qualities increase or decrease at the same rate :—

The *longer* I knew him, the *more* I liked him.

(3) Comparative of Graduation, expressing increase or decrease of the same quality at an even rate :—

His books get *longer and longer* and *duller and duller*.

(4) Apparent Comparative, expressing with *more* a contrast between two qualities in the same person at the same time :—

I was *more sorry* than angry at his behaviour.



## FORMS AND USES OF THE SUPERLATIVE.

§304. The Superlative has four forms :—

(1) Plain Superlative; (2) Superlative with *at*; (3) Superlative with a Possessive Pronoun; (4) Superlative with *at* and a Possessive Pronoun.

(1) The Plain Superlative expresses the highest degree of a quality in one or more persons or things compared with others, or in one and the same person or thing at different times or places or under different circumstances, or can be used adverbially :—

Asoka was the *greatest* of the ancient rulers of India.

He is *most approachable* after dinner.

I like him *best* for his generosity.

(2) The Superlative with *at* is only used adverbially and expresses extreme of time, place or other circumstances :—

You must post by 9.30 *at the latest* in order to catch the mail.

(3) The Superlative with a Possessive Pronoun is used as an adverb adjunct to verbs and expresses the highest degree in a person or thing which is the subject of the verb :—

Don't shoot the pianist. He's doing *his best*.

(4) The Superlative with *at* and a Possessive Pronoun is used attributively and in attributive adjuncts following the noun qualified and expresses the highest degree in the one and same person at different times or places or under different circumstances :—

He is *at his best and happiest* when with children.

Man *at his wisest* is very subject to error.

## RELATIVE AND ABSOLUTE SUPERLATIVE.

§305. When, as above, the Superlative is used to express the highest degree with a real sense of

comparison with other persons, things, times, places or circumstances, it is called the Relative Superlative. There is also, however, an Absolute Superlative which expresses only a very high degree without sense of comparison; usually *most* is used, and often *a* before it :—

This is *a most beautiful* book.

I have given only *the briefest* account of what I saw.

I found him in *the best of tempers*.

#### LIMITS OF THE COMPARATIVE AND SUPERLATIVE.

§306. It is to be noted that the Comparative only expresses the existence of more, the Superlative of most of a given quality at a given time or with a given person or persons. They do not express Excess of a quality nor Emphasis on a quality. Excess is expressed by *too*, Emphasis by *very* placed before the positive of the adjective or adverb.

#### (§§298-305). *Errors in Comparison*

Errors in Comparison are made through either (a) using a wrong form for Comparative or Superlative, or (b) trying to make Comparative or Superlative do the work of *too* and *very*, i.e. to express Excess or Emphasis.

#### THE COMPARATIVE (§303).

Error 434. We are *far* ahead in the latter respect than Russia or China.

It is a common error, since the Indian languages use the positive for comparison, to do the same in English. Here, of course, *farther* or *further* should have been used.

Error 435. If the forest laws are rigorous, the Government are charged with extreme parsimony; if the land tax is *heavier*, the blame is again on them.



Error 436. Though I was *so far off* to witness the actual beating, I am more than satisfied that it took place.

The above are two efforts to express Excess. The comparative (*heavier*) will not do it, nor will *so* with the positive. Only *too* with the positive (*too heavy, too far off*), is possible.

Error 437. We cannot *too sufficiently* express our indebtedness to Mr. A.

*Sufficiently* has an absolute meaning and can have no degree, not even of excess, therefore omit *too*.

Error 438. The Hindus generally speak *more highly* of the dead.

This suggests a comparison of the Hindus with another community, but no comparison is meant, only a maximum degree without comparison, i.e. the Absolute Superlative, *most highly*, or emphasis, i.e. *very highly*.

#### THE SUPERLATIVE (§§304-305).

Here, either *only* is thought wrongly to be necessary to a superlative or else the superlative is used wrongly to express emphasis instead of *very*. Once again, *very* seems to be an adverb unknown to a very great many Indian students.

Error 439. They demand the sword as the *only* weapon *best* suited to remove difficulties.

Error 440. Now the boycott of foreign cloth is, *by far*, the *only* propaganda being seriously thought of.

In the former error, *only* is used with a superlative, in the latter with an adverb (*by far*) which goes with a superlative. In both cases it is superfluous, for it has nothing to do with superlatives. In the former case it should be omitted (*the weapon best suited*), in the latter replaced by a suitable superlative (*by far the most successful propaganda*).

Error 441. Yesterday we had *heaviest* rain in Bombay.

Error 442. So it was *quite necessary* he should possess this faculty of eloquence.

Error 443. As it was *too late*, Jenny rose to return home.

All the above are efforts to express emphasis, not comparison (*heaviest*) nor sufficiency (*quite*) nor excess (*too*). In all three *very* should have been used with the positive:—*very heavy*; *very necessary*; *very late*.

Error 444. It was a *very quiet and peaceful* procession that has ever passed through the streets of the city.

Alas, even when *very* is used it is wrong! The *ever passed* in the sub-clause shows that a superlative is designed, hence *the most quiet and peaceful procession*, etc.

#### OTHER SUFFIXES.

§307. Besides *-er*, *-(e)st*, many other suffixes are used to coin new words. A list of all that have been used in English would be confusing, for many are now obsolete. The following suffixes are still alive, and are here arranged according to the parts of speech they create.

#### §308. Verb-Suffixes.

*-en* added to adjectives to form transitive and intransitive verbs (*deaden*, *fasten*, *liken*, *worsen*) and to some nouns (*strengthen*, *frighten*).

*-fy* added in many verbs with the main syllable from the Latin (*magnify*, *verify*) and also added to English adjectives and nouns, generally with comic meaning (*beautify*, *speechify*).

*-ize* or *-ise*, Greek in origin and therefore found first in verbs of Greek origin (*canonize*, *characterize*, *apologize*, *sympathize*). Hence transferred to English words (*Italianize*, *familiarize*, *italicize*).

#### §309. Noun-Suffixes.

*-dom*, *-hood*, *-ness*, *-ship* and *-ing* are all added—the first two to nouns and adjectives, the third to



adjectives and past participles, the fourth to adjectives and verbs, the fifth to nouns and verbs—to make abstract nouns (*wisdom, falsehood, tenderness, friendship, skating*). They are differentiated in that, while *-ness* gives only abstracts, *-dom* and *-ship* give also rank (*earldom, lordship*) and domain (*kingdom, heathendom*), and both *-dom* and *-hood* give collectives of persons (*villadom, priesthood*), the former in a disparaging sense, and *-ing* can give concretes (*black-ing*) and nouns usable in the plural (*wedding*).

*-ment, -ry* and *-ism* are added (*-ment* to nouns and verbs, *-ry* and *-ism* to nouns and adjectives) to make nouns expressing action or condition (*accomplishment, rivalry, heroism, rheumatism*). They differ in that *-ment* also expresses the instrument or result of action (*pavement, embodiment*), while *-ry* expresses an occupation (*dentistry, falconry*) or collectives (*yeomanry, jewelry*), and *-ism* expresses systems of theory or practice (*Hinduism, Mohammedanism*) or group peculiarities (*modernism, separatism*).

*-ful* is added to nouns only to express a quantity that fills or would fill (*teaspoonful, handful*).

*-itis* suggests physical inflammation and is added to nouns to name diseases (*colitis, appendicitis*).

*-er, -or, -ar* and *-ess* are added to nouns of persons to express agents (*talker, author, beggar, poetess*), the last being feminine. *-er* is added also to adjective and noun compound names, mainly of military and naval objects (*ten-pounder, five-master, six-footer*).

*-or* and *-ee* are suffixes for agents in law first of all, the former active (*lessor*), the latter passive (*lessee*). Thence the use of *-ee* has been extended to other agents (*examinee, addressee, devotee, drawee, absentee, evacuee*).

*-ist*, *-ite* and *-ster* also express persons, *-ist* for practisers of an art, trade, science or creed (*dramatist*, *tobacconist*, *botanist*, *atheist*), and *-ite* inhabitants, followers of a party, etc. (*Bombayite*, *Congressite*), *-ster* including uses of both the previous (*punster*, *gangster*). *-ite* also gives scientific names (*lyddite*, *bakelite*).

*-ette*, *-ie* or *-y*, *-let*, and *-ling* are diminutive suffixes (*suffragette*, *novelette*; *Willy*, *doggie*; *piglet*, *booklet*; *duckling*, *lordling*).

### §310. Adjective-Suffixes.

*-ful* is added to nouns, *-less* to nouns and verbs to give adjectives expressing, the one 'full of or characterized by' (*soulful*, *beautiful*), the other 'lack of' (*thoughtless*, *dauntless*).

*-ly* and *-ish* express the quality of the noun they are added to, the former praiseworthy if the noun allows of it (*manly*, *kingly*, but *beggarly*), the latter the opposite (*mannish*, *girlish*). *-ish* also gives national adjectives (*Swedish*) and adjectives suggesting approximation (*youngish*, *yellowish*).

*-ian*, *-ine* and *-ese* go with proper names (*Georgian*, *Alexandrine*, *Goanese*). *-ine* also gives terms of natural history (*porcine*).

*-ern*, *-erly*, *-ward* added to nouns express direction (*eastern*, *westerly*, *townward*).

*-able*, *-ible* added to verbs express ability (*malleable*, *edible*) and sometimes added to nouns, 'possessing or giving' (*personable*, *comfortable*).

*-ed* added to nouns expresses 'possessed of' (*red-faced*, *spurred*, *contented*). It is common with past participial adjectives (*delighted*, *defeated*).

*-y*, *-ey* added to nouns express 'characterized by' (*stony*, *clayey*).



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*-ic* goes with words of Latin origin or imitating Latin (*romantic, pragmatic*) and some English words (*aldermanic*).

*-some* makes adjectives from nouns, adjectives and verbs (*gamesome, wholesome, winsome*).

*-fold, -eth, -th* go with cardinal numbers (*tenfold, twentieth, fifth*).

## §311. Adverb-Suffixes.

*-ly* makes adverbs from adjectives (*curiously*) and from present and past participles and from ordinals (*secondly*) and occasionally from nouns (*purposely*). Adjectives in *-ic* make their adverbs with *-ically*, except *politically* and *publicly*. Adjectives in *-ly* do not make adverbs with a further *-ly* but are used in a phrase (*in a kindly manner*), except *likely* when preceded by a qualifying adverb (*most likely, very likely*).

## PREFIXES.

§312. These are used much less than suffixes and have a literary flavour. All—except *be-*, *mis-*, *out-*, *over-* and *un-*,—are of Greek or Latin origin.

*dis-*, *un-*, *in-*, and *non-* express the negative of the word to which they are prefixed (*disunite, undo, inability, non-suit*).

*mal-*, *mis-*, express 'wrong or evil action' (*maladministration, malpractice, misuse*).

*pre-*, *ante-*, *post-* express time or place before or after (*predate, antedate, postpone*).

*extra-*, *hyper-*, *super-*, *ultra-*, *out-*, *over-* all express excess, meaning in themselves 'outside' or 'beyond' (*extravagance, hypersensitiveness, superabundance, ultramodernity, outsize, overgrown*).

*pro-*, *anti-*, *counter-* express action or attitude for or against (*pro-Indian, antitoxin, counterplot*).

*super-*, *sub-* express, respectively, 'above' and 'under' and suggest place or position in one direction or the other (*superadd*, *sub-edit*).

*be-* is the old prefix to form transitive verbs (*be-friend*, *belittle*, *betake*) and with past participles gives a disparaging meaning (*beplastered*, *bemedalled*).

*co-* ('together with'), *trans-* ('across'), *ex-* ('out of'), *inter-* ('between'), *re-* ('again'), *semi-* ('half') are all Latin prefixes that carry the meanings attached to them into the words they build (*co-worker*, *transatlantic*, *ex-politician*, *intermarry*, *refurnish*, *semi-conscious*). *Ex-* now means 'former' (*ex-minister*).

#### (§§307-312) *Errors with Suffixes and Prefixes*

These are, naturally, comparatively uncommon. They consist in making new words which are either unnecessary or would not mean what they are intended to mean.

#### SUFFIXES.

Error 445. India is not good at accounts nor *picy* in her dealings.

The writer has some vernacular word meaning 'careful with pice' in his mind and is trying to create a corresponding English adjective from *pice*. But *picy* would rather mean 'rich' ('characterized by pice') if it meant anything at all. Perhaps the Scotch *canny* is what the writer wanted.

(§310).

Error 446. On hearing this, the butcher got *nervoused* and calmly passed away without grumbling.

Perhaps this is too bad an error to be reckoned as typical, especially as *calmly passed away* means really 'quietly died' instead of what was intended, i.e. 'went away quietly'. However, it is worth noticing as using wrongly the suffix *-ed*, which cannot be added to words which are



already adjectives (*nervous*). Perhaps the writer was misled by *flurried*, which has the meaning he required but is correctly a past participle of *to flurry*. Or perhaps he is thinking of *unnerved*, which is, however, correctly formed from the verb *to unnerve*.

#### PREFIXES.

Error 447. One caste is not allowed to intermarry with the same caste of a neighbouring city, although they may *interdine*.

*Interdine* would probably not be understood properly by English people, unacquainted with India, but should, we think, now be accepted, since it is formed quite correctly by analogy with *intermarry*, is needed in India and is everywhere understood there.

Error 448. Mr. Gokhale was an *anti-druggist* and could not bear the idea of people drugging themselves with either liquor or opium.

*Anti-druggist* is quite correctly formed but, unfortunately, the writer overlooked that *druggist* already exists and means 'a man who sells drugs', i.e. a pharmacist. Mr. Gokhale was not against such men but against self-drugging. Substitute *Mr. Gokhale was against the taking of drugs*, etc.

Error 449. He had *no sufficient* army to fight.

Substitute *an insufficient*, using the perfectly good negative derivative.

Error 450. *Unmoral* people.

The proper negative derivative here is either *immoral*, if the people have bad morals, or even *amoral*, if they have none!

### Composition

#### NATURE OF COMPOUNDS.

§313. A Compound is a combination of two or more words which means something different from these words placed alongside each other. Thus, a crow is a 'bláck bírd' but not a *blackbird*.

§314. This example shows one method of distinguishing a compound, viz., inequality of stress between the parts. Sometimes the greater stress is on the first part (*plágue-ridden, bláckball, schóol-days*), sometimes on the last (*man-in-the-stréet, man-of-wár*). Other methods of creating a distinction which shows a word to be a compound are to give a special (Latinized) ending to the first part (*Indo-European, politico-religious*) or to add case-endings only to the final part (*place-names, fortune-tellers*).

§315. When all these tests fail it is often difficult to say whether a word-group is sufficiently united to be called a compound or whether the first part is just being used in a new way (see below Conversion). This is specially frequent with groups of noun plus noun. Thus, on the one hand, appositional groups (see below) are often word-groups not very closely knit together (*Congress party, Home Rule movement*), and, on the other, some first words of noun plus noun groups are rather converted adjectives (*everyday affairs*). We shall find, therefore, no very rigid distinction made in some cases between compounds of noun plus noun and conversion of nouns into adjectives.

#### ORIGIN OF COMPOUNDS.

§316. Word-groups have become compounds in either of two ways:—

(1) from their natural order in a sentence and common association; thus, *a gentle man* gives *a gentleman*. These are called Syntactical Compounds and are far the more common kind;

(2) from imitating a syntactical order no longer used; thus the Old English (700-1050 A.D.) order of noun-object before subject has been imitated in



*woman-hater, painstaking, to browbeat.* These are called Analogical Compounds and are, naturally, comparatively uncommon.

### KINDS OF COMPOUNDS.

§317. Compounds exist in such numbers and have come into existence in so many ways that a full list of possible combinations would rather confuse than help. Here, therefore, a selection of the most important is given for guidance.

#### Noun + Noun.

Compound Titles: *King-Emperor, Lord Chancellor, Major-General, Mr. Speaker.*

Title + Name: *Dr. Wells, Mr. Shaw.*

Proper + Common Noun: *the Wilson children, Harper brothers.*

Common + Common Noun: *apple sauce, kidney bean, gate leg, window curtain, tree trunk, table leg, wood pulp, hare lip.*

Appositional Compounds: *child genius, girl guide, Hindu inhabitants, man-servant, lady teacher.*

Genitival First-Words: *boys' school, fool's paradise, printer's error, master's degree, crow's foot, hair's breadth.*

Noun + Adjective: (These are mostly French in origin) *attorney-general, knight errant, nominative singular, heir apparent, nation-wide.*

#### Adjective + Noun:

(1) In Direct relation:—*greengage, whitebait, red lead, busybody, mainspring.*

(2) In Indirect relation:—*sick-room, lunatic asylum, married life, old age, born days, female education, Sanskrit student.*

Verb + Object: *breakfast, cut-throat, cross-road, sweep-stake, pick-me-up, make-believe* (object is a verb).

Noun-Object + Verb or Verbal Derivative: *browbeat, woman-hater, slave-driver, wage-earner, painstaking, English-speaking.*

Verb + Adverb: *make up, throw back, breakdown, go-between, die-hard, stay-at-home, stick-in-the-mud, ne'er-do-well.*

Verbal Phrase: *has-been, would-be, might-have-been.*

Verbal Noun in -er + Adverb: *passer by, hanger on, whipper in, looker-on.*

Verbal Noun in -ing + Adverb: *going-on, carrying on, talking-to.*

Preposition + Object: *afternoon, overall, out-of-work, Under-ground, to-do* (preposition + infinitive).

Noun + Past Participle: *moonstruck, thunderstruck, hunger-stricken.*

Noun + Preposition + Noun: *daughter-in-law, man-o'-war, dog-in-the-manger, coat of arms.*

Adjective + Preposition + Noun: *good-for-nothing, light-o'-love, four-in-hand.*

Noun + and + Noun: *two and sixpence, carriage and four, bread and butter, brandy and soda.*

Noun + worth, power: *pennyworth, horse-power, candle-power.*

Adjective + Apparent Past Participle: *open-handed, long-winded, thick-headed* (N.B.—The second element is really a noun with -ed suffix.)

### (§§313-317). *Errors in Composition*

These are about evenly divided in number between those meant to be syntactic and those meant to be analogical. The syntactic errors are, however, due almost entirely to construction by false analogy with true syntactic compounds. All are due to an only partial understanding of the English way of making compounds.

Errors in making noun + noun compounds will be considered later in the Chapter under the heading Conversions: Nouns as Adjectives.



(a) *Syntactical.*

(§316).

Error 451. If even a *hair-wide* passage is left open.

As shown above, compounds of noun+adjective are foreign to English usage, though a few, like *nation-wide*, are now coming into the language. In any case, we do not speak of a *hair* as being *wide* but rather *broad*, as in the phrase *within a hair's breadth*, which is probably what the writer had in mind when he coined his new compound. A *hair-broad passage* is too strange for English eyes. It is best to say *a passage as broad as a hair*.

Error 452. They think they are in no way *duty-bound* to devote themselves to India's salvation.

This new compound is made from a misunderstanding of the fossil-phrase *in duty bound*, where the adverb adjunct *in duty* is placed before its adjective *bound* instead of where present-day English would demand it, i.e. after. Correct by either omitting *duty* or by writing *bound in duty*.

Error 453. *Europe-retuned* men.

The few noun+past participle compounds which we have in English are survivals of an old method of making compounds no longer used. They are confined to a few verbs like *to strike*, and the noun is always in an instrumental relation, e.g. *moonstruck* means 'struck by the moon'. The method has not been revived in prose and is now purely poetical in usage. *Europe-retuned* and coinages like it are, therefore, not permissible, even apart from it being doubtful whether it means 'returned from Europe', or 'returned to Europe'. We now put such adjuncts after the noun: *men returned from Europe*.

(b) *Analogical.*

Error 454. Applications are invited for the post of an *Urdu-knowing* trained lady teacher.

Such compounds, with *knowing* and other present participles as the second element, seem to be made on the pattern of *English-speaking* and are, technically speaking, correctly

made. But mere technical correctness is not sufficient in a language; the word so made must also be accepted generally and used, and it must overcome all competition from other possible constructions. English does not—yet—accept compounds of an object + *knowing* and other present participles (except *speaking*), but uses instead an adjectival clause, i.e. (*a trained lady teacher*) *who knows Urdu*.

Error 455. Ruskin repudiates this view of measure and asks the *view-holder* to improve upon stars.

*View-holder* is apparently formed by analogy with *slave-driver*, etc. But these compounds of Object + Verbal Noun in *-er* have all a material sense. The method cannot be transferred to metaphorical uses of the verb like *to hold views*. Again, an adjectival clause is the only way out: *asks the man who holds such views*, etc.

Error 456. *Open-fistedness*.

An amusingly absurd formation on the analogy of *open-handedness*, which has a natural metaphorical meaning of 'generosity'. The compound with the opposite meaning of 'miserliness' is *close-fistedness*, but how can a *fist*, which means a clenched hand, be *open*?

Error 457. He was idle in his *young age*.

*Young age* is by analogy with *old age*. But the adjective *old* has no corresponding abstract noun (it once had *eld*), hence the compound *old age*. *Young*, however, has *youth*, which must here be used.

### Conversion

§318. Conversion means the use of a word normally used as one part of speech, e.g., a verb, as another part of speech, e.g., a noun.

This very common practice in English is due to the general loss of flexional endings which distinguish parts of speech. However, usage strictly controls the practice, i.e., many technically possible conversions



are not used, and anyone learning English must not use just any word as another part of speech but learn which are so used and which are not.

Below are given the main kinds of Conversion, with examples of each.

### §319. *Verbs.*

Verbs may be used either as nouns or as adjectives. (The Gerund also functions as a noun under certain conditions.)

#### (a) *Verbs as Nouns.*

This use is a limited one but found regularly with verbs in common use. The verbal form used is generally the plain infinitive:—

*A wash, brush, and shave; a good think; a stare; (keep) a watch; a dive; a swim; a drive; a has-been; I don't care a hang; it was hit or miss; touch and go; there must be give and take.*

#### (b) *Verbs as Adjectives.*

Very limited indeed, consisting of either a compound tense or a passive infinitive with *not*, *never*, or, more rarely, another adverb:—

*A would be politician; a never-to-be-forgotten day; not-to-be-despised objections.*

Note that *would be* does not express futurity (i.e., 'a future politician') but aspiration (i.e., 'a man who aspires to be a politician') and is used somewhat depreciatingly.

### §320. *NOUNS.*

Nouns may be used as either adjectives or as verbs.

#### (a) *Nouns as Adjectives.*

An extremely common use, the noun being either in the common or the genitive case and generally in

the singular number, though plurals occur (e.g., *General Purposes Committee*).

The genitive form is found in the first-words of genitival noun+noun compounds (*pig's eyes*, *lady's maid*, *giant's stride*).

The common case is far more frequent, and, in noun+noun compounds, the relation of the first-word to the second may be one of many. Taking some of the examples given under kinds of Compounds above (§317) and also other examples, the first noun may express:—

- (1) Apposition:—*lady teacher* (i.e. a teacher who is a lady), *father-confessor*, *boy-friend*.
  - (2) Origin or Seat:—*Dacca muslin* (i.e. muslin made at Dacca), *Bombay mangoes*, *home news* ('news from home').
  - (3) Material:—*teak table* (i.e. a table made of teak), *bronze bust*, *apple sauce*, *mango chutney*.
  - (4) Direction or Political Division:—*the north wind*, *North Borneo*.
  - (5) Purpose:—*window curtain* (i.e. a window for a curtain), *letter box*.
  - (6) Resemblance:—*hare lip* (i.e. a lip like a hare's), *kidney bean*, *gate-leg*, *giant-tree*, *cat and dog life*.
  - (7) Possession:—*table-leg*, (i.e. the leg of a table), *place-name*, *tree-trunk*, *waistcoat-pocket*.
- (b) *Nouns as Verbs*.

Also very common, so that almost any noun is capable of being used as a verb, cf. Shakespeare's *King me no king* and *uncle me no uncle*.

Examples can be easily be thought of, but here are a few:—

*to tram*, *train* and *bus*; *to gas* and *to club*; *to hand*, *to foot*, and *to head*; *to iron*; *to silver*; *to pen*, *to pencil*; *to feather*; *to wire*.



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There are also some groups of adjective+noun used as verbs :—

*to dry dock, to coldshoulder, to wet nurse.*

## ADJECTIVES.

§321. Adjectives may be used as nouns, as verbs or as adverbs.

(a) *Adjectives as Nouns.*

A very common practice, but there are limitations and degrees to be observed. One limitation is that adjectives which with the definite article make an abstract noun or describe a group of people (e.g. *the true and the false*) will not make a concrete noun with the indefinite article (e.g., *a true* is impossible) but require the prop-word *one* (*a true one*).

With regard to degrees of conversion, some adjectives have been fully converted, i.e., can be used entirely as nouns with a genitive singular in 's and a plural in s, while others cannot carry these endings and therefore remain adjectives though used as nouns.

§322. Of adjectives which have been completely converted Professor Jespersen has made a very full analysis, from which the following are a few examples :—

*Mortals, superiors, males, moderns, Liberals, criminals, dears, elders, universals, unseens, vegetables, thoroughbreds, vitals, woollens, dailies, contraries, worsts, two-thirds, bygoners.*

Some wholly converted adjectives are used in the singular only :—

*The accused, deceased, betrothed, firstborn, etc.*

The most important of all adjectives entirely convertible into nouns is *one*, for it assists numbers of other

adjectives, which cannot be converted into nouns, to express a material, whether in the singular or plural :—

*A black one, this one, better ones, our near and dear ones.*

§323. Incompletely converted adjectives may denote :—

(i) a whole class with the definite article, whether a group in the plural or a neuter in the singular :—

*The rich and the poor; the known and the unknown; the true and the false.*

(Note that *thing* must be added to the adjective when the neuter expresses a concrete and becomes a true Singular :—*the best thing to do.*)

(ii) a neuter idea in certain fixed phrases, either with a preposition or with a comparative or superlative adjective :—

*out of the common, in the extreme, for good, of old, all of a sudden, on the whole, at last, at best, etc. : to get the better (or best) of, he breathed his last, if things come to the worst, not in the slightest.*

(iii) a whole nation with the definite article, if the adjective ends in *-sh*, *-ch*, *-ese* :—

*the English, the French, the Chinese (also the Swiss).*

(But individuals of a nation require *-men*, *-women*, *-people* after the adjective :—*the English people on board.* Some nationalities have fully converted adjectives :—*the Germans, the Austrians, the Hindus, the Turks, the Americans, etc.*)

(iv) indefinite quantities :—

*much, more, most, little, less, least, enough, certain.*

§324. (b) *Adjectives as Verbs.*

A not very common use, many verbs being preferably formed from adjectives by suffix (*redde*n, *tighten*, etc.)



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ways (*to black, to blacken*) with different meanings (*to black one's boots; to blacken one's character*).

*to idle, to cool, to warm, to dry, to pale, to square.*

§325. (c) *Adjectives as Adverbs.*

In older English adjectives were regularly used as adverbs without alteration, and this practice remains with many of the commonest ones and is quite usual with comparative and superlative adjectives:—

*fast, hard, quick, slow, sharp, plain; easier, tighter, closer, etc.*

(On the other hand, adjectives in *-ly* should not be used as adverbs but express an adverbial relation with a prepositional phrase:—*he treated me in a friendly manner*).

## PRONOUNS.

§326. *Pronouns as Nouns.*

The personal pronouns (*he, she, etc.*) and the compound indefinites (*anybody, anything, etc.*) can be used as nouns, e.g.:—

Is the baby a *he* or a *she*?

That not impossible *she*.

Who may command my heart and *me*.

Take a little *something* to keep out the cold.

He's a *nobody*.

## ADVERBS.

§327. Adverbs may be used as either nouns, adjectives, verbs or conjunctions.

(a) *Adverbs as Nouns.*

A limited use, possible in some cases in the plural:—

for this *once*; the *why, where* and *how* of a question;  
an *aside*; the *ups* and *downs* of life; the *ins* and  
*outs* of a matter; the *Ins* and the *Outs* (i.e. the

Government and the Opposition in a legislative assembly): the *Ayes* and the *Noes* (in voting on a measure).

(b) *Adverbs as Adjectives.*

Rather more common, covering mainly adverbs of time and place :—

the *then* Government; his *after* fame; the *far* West; the *near* future, a *near* relative; a *roundabout* manner; *well-off*; *ill-bred*, an *ill* wind.

(c) *Adverbs as Verbs.*

Limited to a very few adverbs :—

*to near* (a place); *to out* (a person); *to down* (a person or tools); *to up and away*.

(d) *Adverbs as Conjunctions.*

One or two adverbs of time can introduce clauses in a manner very like conjunctions :—

*Now* I've heard him, I like him better.

*Directly* I saw you I recognized the resemblance.

## PREPOSITIONS.

### §328. *Prepositions as Conjunctions.*

In dialectal or careless English a few prepositions are used as conjunctions :—

I shan't let you go *without* (or *except*) you tell me.

I got it ready *against* (i.e. until) he should want it.

## SENTENCES.

§329. Complete sentences, in a few cases, are used as nouns or adjectives :—

### (a) *Sentences as Nouns.*

Have you seen *what's his name*?

### (b) *Sentences as Adjectives.*

a *yes or no* answer; a *devil-may-care* fellow.



(§§318-329) *Errors in Conversion*

These are mainly found in attempts to convert nouns into first-words of compounds or into adjectives, but there are other errors of importance, notably a too common wrong use of verbs as adjectives.

## VERBS (§319).

*Verbs as Nouns.*

Error 458. Cressida is a fish in the *angle* of her uncle Pandarus.

Not a very sensible sort of mistake, to try and make a noun out of the verb *to angle* when there are nouns ready-made like *net* and *hook* (but write *on the hook*) to hand for use.

Error 459. There is a *Boarding* attached to the college.

A very common error. Only *boarding establishment* (or *hostel* or *house*) is possible. The gerund (*boarding*) of this compound cannot be cut off and made into a noun by itself, any more than a *walking stick* can be called a *walking*!

*Verb as Adjective* (§319).

Error 460. Mr. X. is Tilak's *would-be* disciple.

This use of *would-be* is correct if Mr. X.'s discipleship is meant to be disparaged, for *would-be* carries a more or less contemptuous significance. But the writer means nothing disparaging; he means it seriously that Mr. X. wishes to be a disciple of Tilak. Then *would-be* must be avoided and another construction used, e.g.: *Mr. X. aims at being a disciple of Tilak.*

## NOUNS (§320).

*Nouns as Adjectives.*

Here we are faced with the Indian student's main difficulty—and error—in making compounds in English. He knows that in Sanskrit—and in Indian Prakritic vernaculars—two

nouns can be put together in almost any relationship, e.g. : *vidyalaya*, *devaputra*, etc., and thinks, therefore, that the same can be done in English, or does not think at all but just does it. However, if *vidyalaya* were made into *learning-home* there would be an error of form in English, which demands *home of learning* instead; and if *devaputra* were translated as *godson*, there would be an error of meaning, for *devaputra* means 'son of a god' while *godson* means 'son in God', i.e. a son in a spiritual relationship only. Notice that noun+noun combinations in English cover readily other prepositional relationships between the nouns (i.e. *at*, *for*, *like*, *from*) but only two *of*-relationships.

It is these *of*-relationships that must be treated with special care in making English compounds or using nouns as adjectives. Among the examples given in §317 it will be seen that, in *of*-compounds, the first-words express only either material or possession (*teak-table*, *table-leg*). Any other *of*-relationships than these it is not safe to put in the form of a noun+noun compound, but only to put in the second of these nouns at the head and the first after it as an *of*-adjunct, e.g. :—*vidyalaya*=*home of learning*, *devaputra*=*son of God*.

Error 461. We are getting daily worse in the matter of *bride-price* and *bridegroom-price*.

Correct by writing *in the matter of the price of a bride or bridegroom*.

Error 462. The peaceful elephant stands lazily in a shady spot, tossing *grass-blades* over its huge back.

*Grass-blades* looks a possible combination, but reflection shows that the blades are not 'made of' grass as of a material; rather they consist of grass. Write *blades of grass*.

Error 463. Perhaps you will sell pice *tea-cups*.

This shows clearly the confusion that comes of compounding an *of*-relationship. *Tea-cups* does not mean 'cups of tea' but 'cups for tea'. Write *cups of tea*.

Error 464. This medicine cured my *family members*.



*Family members* is the hoariest and toughest of these errors. The relationship is that the member is a part of the family, and partitive *of* is not one of the *of*-relationships covered by noun + noun compounds. Write *members of my family*.

Error 465. Among the greatest characters of *world's literature men* is Ruskin.

Two errors. First, 'the literature of the world' makes a non-genitival compound *world literature*, the literature being the possession of the world. Second, the 'men' do not belong to 'world literature' but are a part of it, therefore *men of (or in) world literature*.

Error 466. A *smattering* knowledge of modern physical theories.

*Smattering* is commonly misunderstood to be an adjective (i.e. the present participle of a verb *to smatter*, which, however, does not exist), but it is a noun. Hence, here it makes a kind of compound with *knowledge*. *Knowledge* is not necessary: write simply a *smattering of*, etc.

*Nouns as Verbs* (§320).

Few errors occur under this head.

Error 467. The queen thinks she can *eye-wash*.

*Eye-wash* as a noun is a vulgarism for 'deception'. To use it as a verb is unnecessary as well as vulgar, for there is a perfectly suitable verb *deceive*.

ADJECTIVES (§§321-325).

Errors in the conversion of adjectives are mainly due to making unconverted adjectives stand alone without the prop-word *one* or to misusing gerunds as nouns or to mistaking adjectives in *-ly* as adverbs.

*Adjectives as Nouns* (§§321-323).

Error 468. The points to be noted in fixing a building to be a *Gothic* are . . . .

*Gothic* is not an adjective which can stand alone as a noun; it requires the prop-word *one*, i.e. a *Gothic one*.

*Adjectives as Adverbs (§325).*

Error 469. She passed most of her time *lonely*.

Typical of the error of using an *-ly* adjective as an adverb. Such adjectives can only be employed adverbially by means of a phrase with *manner*, i.e. *in a lonely manner*.

Error 470. The pain is left to be endured *life-long*.

*Long* by itself may be used as both adjective and adverb without change, but the compounds of noun + *long* (*daylong*, etc.) cannot. They require a periphrasis, generally with *all* and a personal pronoun, e.g.: *all our lives long*.

## ADVERBS (§327).

Fairly common here is the mistake of using all kinds of adverbs as adjectives, whereas only a few common short ones and some adverbs of time and one or two others can be so used. The error is probably due to translation from the vernaculars, where such conversion or compounds of adverb + noun are more common.

*Adverbs as Nouns (§327).*

Error 471. If they wish *well* of India.

It is doubtful whether this is an error with a preposition (*If they wish well to India* would be quite correct) or one of using the adverb *well* as a noun. If the latter, the correction is the substitution of the noun corresponding to *well*, e.g.: *If they wish the good of India*.

*Adverbs as Adjectives (§327).*

Error 472. Dean Inge mitigates this difficulty by his compact and *to-the-point* treatment of the matter under discussion.

A characteristic specimen of this fairly common error of using just any adverb or adverbial phrase as an attributive adjective. In this and some other cases, the error may be due partly to mistaking the adverb as an adjective because it can be used predicatively with the verb *to be* (e.g. *His treatment was to the point*). But a number of



adverbs are commonly so used (*Time is up. She was out.*) and remain, nevertheless, adverbs. Correction is generally only possible by substituting a suitable true adjective, e.g. *effective treatment.*

#### SENTENCES (§329).

Error 473. the *hitherto-hidden-from-the-whole-story* Jayadeva

This pearl, which would make excellent grammar in Sanskrit or German, was fished up from a review of a novel. It will, of course, not do, in English, in front of *Jayadeva* but will go very well after the noun, as a participial adjunct without hyphens and with a comma :—*Jayadeva, hitherto hidden from the whole story.*

#### Other Methods of Word-Making

§330. Of several minor ways of making words, five need at least summary mention. They are :—

##### (1) Shortening.

This means either keeping only the most significant syllable of a word and dropping the rest, or else adding a diminutive to the main syllable and dropping the rest, or else using symbolic abbreviations :—

- (i) Most significant syllable alone :—*bus, photo, pub, cycle, motor, plane, Zoo, prep* (preparation of lessons in school), *prom* (promenade—‘a sea-front parade’; or promenade concert);
- (ii) Main syllable and diminutive ending :—*hanky* (handkerchief), *comfy* (comfortable), *chocy* (chocolate), *biccy* (biscuit) and many nursery words;
- (iii) Symbolics :—*£.s.d.* (money), *B.A., P.C.* (post-card or Privy Councillor or police constable), *P.S.* (postscript), *A.D.C.* (aide-de-camp), *H.E.* (His Excellency), etc.

§331. *Back-Formation.*

This means either making a new word by dropping what looks like a suffix (and is not) or is a suffix to only part of a word, or else using the last part of a word as a suffix for other words :—

- (i) Dropping an apparent suffix :—*to burgle* (from *burglar*), *to darkle* (from *darkling*, an adverb meaning 'in the dark'), *to maffick* ('to celebrate rowdily', from *Mafeking*, the relief of which town during the South African War caused a storm of excited celebrations in England), *to new-create* (from *new-created*), etc.
- (ii) Using last part of a word as suffix :—*speedometer* (*-ometer* from *thermometer*), *seascape* (*-scape* from *landscape*), *squirearchy* (*-archy* from *hierarchy*), *electrocute* (*-cute* from *execute*), etc.

§332. *Repetition.*

This means repeating a word with alteration of the main vowel or consonant :—

*chitter-chatter*; *tip-top*; *bang-whang-whang* goes the drum, *tootle-te-tootle* the fife (from Browning), *flip-flap*, *hockey-nocker* ('a girl who plays hockey a great deal'); *clap-trap*; *harum-scarum*, etc.

§333. *Portmanteau Words.*

These are combinations of parts of two or more words into a single word :—

*Bakerloo* (the Baker St.—Waterloo underground railway in London), *Sona* (Stratford-on-Avon), *trafficator* (traffic indicator), *Pashlade* (passion fruit marmalade), *mimsy* (miserable and flimsy), *galumphing* (galloping and triumphing). The last two are from *Alice through the Looking-Glass* by Lewis Carroll, who made delightful combinations of this kind for comic effect.



§334. *Onomatopoeia.*

These imitate their sense with their sound :—

*clap, tick-tock, whizz-bang* (soldiers' name for a kind of shell in the Great War), *jitters* ('fright'), etc.

(§§330-334). *Errors in Other Methods of Word-Making.*

These are confined to errors in Shortening and Back-Formation.

*Shortening* (§330).

Error 474. Please give my *B.C.s* to your family.

This is the finish of a letter, and the writer meant 'best compliments'. *B.C.*, however, already means 'before Christ', and no shortening of *best compliments* is possible.

*Back-Formation* (§331).

Error 475. Tennyson took to writing not merely for the sake of art but for the sake of instructing and *culturing* society.

This error is best regarded as an attempt to make a verb *to culture* by back-formation from the adjective *cultured*, which looks like a past participle but is not. *To culture* looks a useful possible verb, but, till it is generally adopted, another construction must be substituted, e.g. *and giving society culture* or *making society cultured*.

Error 476. He has *optimistical* views.

A new adjective, apparently by back-formation from the adverb *optimistically*, but *optimistic* is the true adjective.

## EXERCISES ON CHAPTER XII

### MAKING WORDS

Correct errors in the following sentences according to the paragraphs indicated, which should be read again carefully first :—

#### A. COMPARISON.

*Uses of Comparative and Superlative* (§§ 303-306)

(a) *Comparative and Positive.*

1. We get little pay than the educated man.

2. Mrs. Gaskell's humour, though patent than Jane Austen's, is not so enjoyable.

(b) *Comparative and Excess.*

1. If that be so, then Mr. T. has not spoken a day sooner.

2. Sacrifice is the stepping stone to success and no sacrifice is greater in the cause of one's country.

3. No price is higher for winning freedom.

4. The charge that we talk more and do less is not deserved.

(c) *Comparative and Emphasis.*

1. The Social Conference aims at raising the status of Indians in general and does it more quietly.

2. Examining the arguments for and against widow remarriage, we are convinced that its introduction is a more pressing necessity.

(d) *Superlative and only.*

1. Each man thinks that his is the only best religion in the world.

(e) *Superlative and Emphasis.*

1. When the child's temple was bruised it was cured by the best means of apricot marmalade.

2. That man leads a worst kind of life.

3. To a student the examination is a very important event in the whole year.

4. It is in the U.S.A. that very marked progress in the direction of nature-study is made.

5. Another touch of S.'s subtle humour at the height of tragedy is quite apparent in the following example.

B. DERIVATION BY PREFIXES (§312).

(i) *Verbs.*

One caste is not allowed to intermarry with the same caste of a neighbouring city, although both may interdine.



## C. COMPOSITION (§§313-317).

## COMPOUNDS.

(a) *Syntactic*.

1. It is to the English-educated men we must look for social and industrial progress.

2. England-goers are now often able to secure their readmission into caste.

(b) *Analogical*.

1. He had a sea-facing house at Dumas for holidays.

2. Wanted, Sanskrit-knowing Indian girl as companion in Hindu family.

3. He was a chair-occupier of architecture in the University.

4. Many of our women have not been able to attend school in their young age.

## TEST PAPERS 12—(MAKING WORDS)

## 12 A

(1) Give the Comparative and Superlative of the following adjectives and adverbs:—*aware, slender, correct, meagre, well-written, far, often*—and add notes of your own to explain any peculiarities in the comparison of them.

(2) What forms has the Superlative in English? Explain briefly the uses of each form, and give one example of your own to illustrate *each* use.

(3) Distinguish, both by explanation and by examples of your own, between the Relative and the Absolute Superlative.

(4) Define the true meanings and uses of *very* and *too*, and illustrate them with a sentence of your own for *each* use.

## 12 B

(5) Explain the meaning or force of the suffixes or prefixes in the following words:—*characterize, falsehood, drawee, starveling, childish, lovely, prepare, ultramarine, sub-editor, interrelate*.

(6) What is meant by Syntactical and by Analogical Compounds? Give three examples of each.

(7) Of what kind is *each* of the following Contact Compounds:—*ten and sixpence*, *plague-stricken*, *age-long*, *blackbird*, *runabout*, *hag-ridden*, *Boy Scout*, *woman clerk*, *oven door*, *long-necked*?

## 12 C

(8) Explain briefly what is meant by Conversion in grammar. Give six examples,—not from this book,—of Conversion.

(9) Explain, and correct, what is wrong with the following converted verbs:—

Scholars have attempted to show various *triflings* in this poem indebted to Dante. It is true that the *invoking* at the beginning of each canto is just like Dante.

This family is remarkable, as every girl in it is a graduate or *would-be* graduate.

(10) In the following sentences, nouns have been wrongly used as adjectives or as first-words of compounds. Correct them, and in *each* case explain in a short note why correction is necessary:—

1. This move will cause nothing but a class hatred war.
2. The Viceroy replied in the following terms to the welcome address of the \*Benares Municipality.
3. There were apples, nashpatis, narangis and plenty of grape-bunches.
4. The young daughter-in-law produced the article and described her experiences to the astonished family members.
5. The replies given by the Government members were, on the whole, satisfactory.
6. A small pit is dug, which is covered with sandal-wood pieces.
7. The Conference demanded facilities for civil claims of the State subjects against the Durbar.
8. Thereupon a Colonel dealt two fist blows to the witness.



9. In the A.D. 1594 decree of Akbar it was laid down that . . . .
10. He wrote lyrics that were popular in his youth time.
11. The Poet condemns a solitude life in a gorgeous palace.
12. I met him to-day morning and told him what you said.
13. Kashmir industry was much developed in Shahjehan's reign.
14. They should establish in every province agricultural bias schools.
15. At Dulwich Ruskin was brought up as a country boy in the ample gardens stocked with fruit.
16. He wanted scope for initiative work.
17. There are many people who would value such a trifle thing.
18. The windows of the building are stained with coloured glass on the front side.
19. He wants to bring about changes in an orderly manner, slowly, not by confusion and disorderly.

## 12 D

(11) Make any necessary corrections in the use of the following adjectives either as nouns or as adverbs, and write a short explanation of each correction:—

1. Not a single of the principles here laid down is entirely true.
2. He finds it hard to live away from his near and dear.
3. She passed most of her time lonely.
4. James I was, on the whole, a learned man, though somewhat of a pedantic.
5. The Marathas have behaved most gentlemanly.
6. The younger wife of the Rai Saheb gave birth to a stillborn.
7. The grave men, who had been nobly and manly standing up, now replied to the accusation.
8. The more he thought of escaping, the greater he became entangled.

(12) Correct the following sentences, in which adverbs have been wrongly converted into adjectives:—

1. Every reformer has had to feel his almost impotence in battling with these forces.

2. Even a mere newcomer or at-times visitor is impressed with the building's beauty.

3. It happens so in oftener cases than not.

4. The palace looks very beautiful when the athwart rays of the sun fall on it.

5. You are perfectly at liberty to differ from him and the Congress on this question without being none-the-less patriots.

6. Capitalists produce too much in vain things.

7. Begum Doctor Alam addressed yesterday afternoon an exclusively ladies meeting.

8. If complete cap-a-pié armour cannot immediately be had, head protection should be at least found.

(13) What other methods of Word-Making are there in English besides Derivation, Composition and Conversion? Give two examples of *each* method, and correct errors in such methods in the following sentences, explaining the error in *each* case:—

1. He shows a sympathetic insight into their material difficulties and onlooks.

2. May I ask the Swami whether there are any Madathipatis who have done as he does regarding the foreign-travelled.

3. We should consider the vastness of the universe cf. to our own earth.

4. Ruskin rather far-fetches this theory of his.



## CHAPTER XIII

### MAKING SENTENCES

#### PARTS OF A SENTENCE.

§335. The following sentence :—

Little Jivan paints the house blue in his book.  
contains the full possible number of parts that go to make a simple sentence. These parts are :—

(i) the Subject (*Jivan*); (ii) the Predicate (*paints*); (iii) the Object (*house*); (iv) Attributive Adjuncts (*little, the, his*); (v) the Adverb Adjunct (*in his book*); (vi) the Predicative Adjunct (*blue*).

The above are, of course, the simplest forms of these parts. Each part has its complications and can be extended considerably, as the following study will show.

#### THE SUBJECT.

§336. Besides the commonest kind of subject, a noun (*Jivan*), five other parts of speech can act as subjects, viz. :—

- (a) a Pronoun :—*He* is a clever little painter,
- (b) the Infinitive with *to* :—*To paint* in water colours is not easy,
- (c) the Gerund :—*Painting* in oils is perhaps easier,
- (d) the Particles, Provisional *it* and Introductory *there* :—

*It* is harder to paint in water colours than in oils.  
*There* are people who can paint well in both media.

(e) a Clause :—*What Jivan hopes to do* is to become an artist.

§337. Of the above possible subjects, *it* and *there* require further consideration. They are not the same as the pronoun *it* and the adverb *there*, which either refer to a noun or designate a place, but are almost empty of meaning and are of importance only for their functions, which are the following :—

Provisional (or Formal) *it* has the following functions :—

(1) *it* makes a subject, where no other can be used, with verbs expressing kinds of weather :—

In England *it rains* or *shines* or *blows* at any time without warning.

(2) *it* represents a real subject which is going to follow the verb. This real subject may be either a verbal noun (infinitive or gerund) or a clause, e.g. :—

*It's not good to sleep too long* (Infinitive).

*It's hard work convincing some people of wrongdoing* (Gerund).

*It came into my mind that he might know* (Noun Clause).

That is, in each of the above sentences the words in italics after the main verb are the real subject of the sentence and might be put in place of the *it*, which is only acting as an empty subject in front of the verb because English does not like clauses and verbal nouns with their objects and adverbs to be placed as subjects in front of the verb.

Introductory *there* acts as an empty subject to a few verbs of weakened meaning (*to be, exist, happen, come, live, etc.*) which are then followed by a noun-subject often qualified by an adjunct or a clause :—

*There's a man over there* I must speak to.

*There have lived few kings* wiser than George V.



§338. There are two differences between Provisional *it* and Introductory *there*.

(i) Provisional *it* has enough of the pronoun-idea left in it to control the number of the main verb, which is always singular :—

A. (questions) Who's at the door?

B. (replying) *It's* two men who want work.

Introductory *there*, on the other hand, has so little character that the number of the verb is controlled by the following noun :—

*There are two men* at the door who want work.

(ii) Provisional *it* has enough of the pronoun-idea to point forward to the real subject (verbal noun or clause), while Introductory *there* vaguely introduces a statement, made up of a verb of weak meaning and a noun, for which it is merely standing as a subject.

(§§336-38). *Errors with the Subject of a Sentence*

Error 477. *Ruskin*, while dealing with architecture, *he* deals with the social conditions of his time.

This error of a repeated subject (*Ruskin* is enough; *he* should be omitted) is due to the dangerous practice of putting a long phrase (*while dealing with architecture*) or clause between subject and main verb (*deals*), whereby the writer forgets that he has already used a subject.

Error 478. *It* is no gainsaying the fact that social reform lies at the root of all progress.

Here is confusion between the uses of provisional *it* and introductory *there*. The sentence has the empty verb *is* and its following noun-subject (*gainsaying*) and its qualifiers, not a verbal noun or clause such as *it* requires. Introductory *there* should be used.

Error 479. The complexity of modern life renders impossible any reversion to those good old conditions,

but *it* is no reason why we should fly to the other extreme.

This *it* is either meant to refer back to the whole clause *The complexity . . . conditions*, or else to introduce the statement *is no reason . . . extreme* which has an empty verb (*is*) and its real subject (*reason*) and qualifying clause (*why . . . extreme*). In the former case, the demonstrative *that* should be used, since referring *it* is too weak-stressed to refer back to a whole clause; in the latter case, introductory *there* is necessary.

### THE OBJECT.

§339. The object, like the subject, is generally a noun, but may also be a noun-equivalent, viz., a gerund, an infinitive with *to* or a noun-clause:—

I like *swimming* (Gerund).

I like *to have* you near me (Infinitive with *to*).

He said *he wanted us both* (Noun Clause).

§340. An object may be the person or thing affected by the action of the verb:—

That fellow hit my *dog* with a stick.  
or effected by the action:—

Deodhar hit a *century* in the last match.  
and such are called Direct Objects.

Other kinds of objects are (i) the Indirect Object, following such verbs as *give*, *send*, *bring*, *pay*, *lend* which take two objects; it stands for the person benefited or inconvenienced by the action on the direct object and always precedes the direct object:—

He lent *me* a pencil.

and (ii) the Prepositional Object, either following the direct object with verbs that take two objects or following a preposition after intransitive verbs:—

He lent a pencil *to me*.

His parents looked *for him* everywhere.



§341. All such objects may become the subjects of a passive construction :—

A *pencil* was lent me by him (Direct Object).

I was lent a pencil by him (Indirect Object).

He was looked for everywhere by his parents (Prepl. Obj.).

§342. Besides verbs and prepositions, a few adjectives can take objects, viz., *busy* (only gerund-objects), *like*, *near*, *worth*, *worthy*, *unworthy* (but the last two with *of* in ordinary speech) :—

I have been *busy writing* all the morning.

Do you think these mangoes are *worth four annas* each?

His objections are *unworthy (of) your attention*.

§343. Provisional *it* is used as a first object by certain verbs (*to owe*, *will have*, *to take* in the sense of 'apprehend', *lay down*) when the real object following is a noun clause, and also after *to make* when a *to*-infinitive follows the real object :—

He *will have it* that you were there.

You *owe it* to him that you escaped punishment.

The Committee *laid it down* that new members should henceforth pay an entrance fee.

*Make it* a point to see your friends as often as possible.

(§§339-343). *Errors with the Object*

Error 480. What he does he does *it* for himself.

This *it* is a superfluous object, for the object to the second *does* is already there, viz. the preceding clause *What he does*.

Error 481. The Reform Associations should make *it* a point of acquainting every family . . . .

Provisional *it* as an object to *make* requires a *to*-infinitive to follow the object (*point*), i.e. :—*make it a point to*

*acquaint*, etc. The above error is due to confusion with another construction with *to make*, viz. *make a point of acquainting*, etc., in which the object is followed by its attributive adjunct (*of* and the gerund *acquainting*, etc.) and there is no *it*.

Error 482. To attribute *them* malicious motives would be wrong.

*Them* is here meant to be an indirect object. But *attribute* is not one of the few verbs that can take an indirect object. Only a prepositional object is possible :— *To attribute to them*, etc.

### ATTRIBUTIVE ADJUNCTS.

§344. Attributive adjuncts qualify nouns and noun-equivalents. They may be any of the following :—

(1) Adjectives, including present and past participles and also converted adjectives :—

*Heavy rain.* A *surprising* occurrence. A *defeated* army. The *early* bird catches the worm.

(2) Adverbs which remain adverbs and follow the noun qualified :—

This boy *here*. A week *earlier*. The year *before*.

(3) Nouns in the genitive case :—

My *uncle's* house. *Yesterday's* newspaper.

(4) Preposition plus noun following the noun qualified :—

A man *of character*. The house *across the road*.  
A coat *of my brother's* not *of mine*.

(5) Adjectives plus noun following the noun qualified :—

The people *next door*. This time *last week*.



## ADVERB ADJUNCTS.

§345. Adverb adjuncts qualify verbs, adjectives or other adverbs. Possible kinds of adverb adjuncts are the following :—

## (1) Adverbs :—

*Very* tall. *Lightly* clad. Don't speak so *loudly*.

## (2) Adjectives used as adverbs :—

Don't talk so *loud*. Walk *quicker*.

## (3) Preposition plus noun or noun-equivalent, following the verb :—

He lives *opposite* *our house*. She looked *like fainting*.

## (4) Nouns without a preposition :—

Tell him to come again *next week*.  
This brass is *Benares* made.

## THE PREDICATE.

§346. Predicate (Latin *praedicare*, 'to proclaim') means that which is stated about the subject of the sentence. This may take nine possible forms, i.e. :—

- (i) Jivan *paints* (i.e. verb alone).
- (ii) Jivan *paints a house* (verb plus direct object).
- (iii) Jivan *paints his father a house* (verb plus indirect and direct objects).
- (iv) Jivan *paints for his father* (verb and prepositional object).
- (v) Jivan *paints well* (verb plus adverb).
- (vi) Jivan *is a painter, is well-known, is at home* (verb of incomplete meaning and its predicative noun, adjective or adverb).
- (vii) Jivan *paints many hours a day* (verb and non-prepositional adjunct).

(viii) Jivan *paints in water colours* (verb and prepositional adjunct).

(ix) Jivan *paints the house blue* (verb plus object plus predicative adjective or noun).

### PREDICATIVE ADJUNCTS.

§347. Predicative adjuncts qualify both the verb and its direct object, if the verb is transitive :—

Jivan *paints the house blue*.

in which the predicative adjective *blue* qualifies both *house* and *paints*, or qualifies the verb and its subject if the verb is intransitive :—

He *grew tired* of his work.

in which the predicative adjective *tired* qualifies both the verb *grew* and its subject *He*.

§348. Besides adjectives, adverbs and nouns may be used predicatively. Thus, in :—

The team has elected Deshmukh its *captain*.

The team have returned *victors*.

the noun *captain* is predicative to the transitive verb *elected* and its direct object *Deshmukh*, while the noun *victors* is predicative to the intransitive verb *have returned*.

Likewise, adverbs which are so closely attached to a verb that they make a kind of compound with it can be regarded as predicative adjuncts. These adverbs are the very common and, usually, short ones, e.g. :—*in, on, out, for, to, etc.* :—

Put your hat *on* and bring me *in* some flowers from the garden.

§349. Two sets of verbs regularly take, along with the direct object, a predicative noun or adjective; there



is, however, a difference of construction between the two sets. They are :—

(1) Verbs of 'making' and 'declaring', which take object plus predicative noun or adjective. The main verbs of this class are :—*to appoint, call, consider, create, crown, declare, elect, make, name, proclaim*, e.g. :—

His schoolfellows *called* him *stupid*, but he has *made* himself a famous *man*.

(2) Verbs of 'seeing', 'choosing' and 'taking', which take object plus *as* or *for* plus predicative noun. Such verbs are :—*to accept, acknowledge, look on, regard, represent, choose, take, treat, view*, e.g. :—

He *represents* himself *as* a wise man but I *know* him *for* the opposite.

#### (§§347-349). Errors with Predicative Adjuncts

Error 483. Many persons, poor though they be, can be found *to be happy*.

*To find*, in this sense, is a verb of 'making' or 'declaring' and takes object plus predicative adjective, i.e. *they found him well and happy*. In the Passive, the sentence should have *can be found happy*.

Error 484. This ruling makes the Hindu form of marriage *as the only really valid one* for Sikhs.

*To make* belongs not to the second but the first of the verb-groups given in §349, i.e. it takes, not *as* plus predicative adjunct, but plain predicative adjunct after the object :—*makes the Hindu form of marriage the only really valid one*, etc.

#### FREE ADJUNCTS.

§350. Free adjuncts are a special kind of predicative adjuncts so separated from the rest of the sentence

that they are generally cut off by commas. They are stylistic and literary, e.g. :—

The great general retired after years of glory and lived, *a plain man among men*.

in which the words in italics refer to the subject *general* and the predicate *lived*, but are separated off from the rest of the sentence.

§351. The connexion between the free adjunct and the rest of the sentence may be shown by connecting the two parts either with a conjunction, e.g., *as if*, *when*, *though*, *whether*, *whenever*, or the adverb *however*, or the compound relative pronoun *whatever* or the preposition *with*, e.g. :—

He lay, *as if dead*, without colour or motion.

You must come, *if* (or *when* or *whenever*) *wanted*.

*Whether well or ill* (or *Though ill*), he carried out his duties.

*However powerful* (or *Whatever his power*), no man is above the law.

She looked up, *with tears in her eyes*.

The free adjunct can also carry a subject of its own, and then expresses attendant circumstances :—

*His wealth gone*, he became a clerk in his uncle's office.

(§§350-351). *Error with Free Adjuncts*

Error 485. What sort of people are they at Barisal *as to be provoked into breaking the peace?*

*As* is not one of the conjunctions introducing a free adjunct. *To be provoked . . . peace*, as a free adjunct, needs no introduction.



*Kinds of Sentences*

## SIMPLE AND COMPLEX SENTENCES.

§352. A sentence may either make one or more statements of equal logical importance, e.g. :—

*I came to see you yesterday but you were out.*

or else statements of unequal logical importance, e.g. :—

*I came to see you yesterday because I had important news.*

The former of these is called a Simple Sentence, the latter a Complex Sentence.

§353. Simple sentences may have more than one subject or predicate or object :—

*My brother and I* are both entering college this year.

*We are determined and expect* to do well.

*We have to consider our own future and our parents' hopes.*

The two or more parts, whether words or clause, which are joined together to form a simple sentence are said to be Co-ordinate with each other, and their equality is called Co-ordination.

## KINDS OF SUBORDINATE CLAUSES.

§354. In Complex Sentences, the inequality is shown by one clause giving the main statement while another clause (or clauses) qualifies that statement in one of several ways. The qualifying clause is said to be Subordinate to the main clause and may be of any of the following kinds :—

(a) a Noun Clause, acting as subject or object to the main statement :—

*Whether he will come* is doubtful (Subject).

I doubt *whether he will come* (Object).

(b) a Predicative Clause, completing the sense of the main verb :—

He is *what you might call irregular*.

(c) an Appositional Clause, in apposition with a noun in the main clause :—

The probability *that he will fail us* is considerable, in which the clause in italics is in apposition with *probability*;

(d) an Adjective Clause, which qualifies a noun or noun-equivalent in the main clause :—

He is not a man *whose punctuality I would trust*.

(e) an Adverb Clause, qualifying the verb in the main clause :—

He stays away *whenever he finds it convenient*.

#### NOUN CLAUSES.

§355. Noun clauses may be used as either subjects or objects to the verb in the main clause. It is possible, by using provisional *it*, to turn a subject noun-clause into an object :—

*Whether he will agree* (subj.) is hard to guess.

*Whether he will agree* (obj.) *it* is hard to guess.

but, obviously, the main verb must, in this case, be transitive.

§356. As objects, noun clauses may be either plain, prepositional or retained (but not indirect) :—

They told me *what he wanted* (Plain).

I looked for *what he wanted* (Prepl.).

I was told by them *what he wanted* (Retained).

and, since the preposition required after a given adjective or noun is usually omitted before a clause, a



noun clause following becomes the object of the adjective or noun in the main clause :—

I was not sure *what he wanted* (Obj. of adj. *sure*).

I had no notion *what he wanted* (Obj. of noun *notion*).

(§§355-356). *Error with Noun Clauses.*

Error 486. Whether we do so or not *it* matters little.

This is the main error with noun clauses, i.e. to use provisional *it* as subject of a following main clause in which the verb is intransitive. The writer does not see, apparently, that this construction makes the preceding noun clause into an object, which is impossible with an intransitive verb. The construction is itself, therefore, impossible. The noun clause can only be a subject of *matters*, and *it* must be omitted :—*Whether we do so or not matters little.*

### *Predicative Clauses*

§357. These complete the meaning of such verbs as *to be*, *seem*, *appear*, *become*, *remain*, etc., and always begin with a relative word, e.g., *what*, *where*, *as*, etc. :—

He remained *what he had always had been*, a true friend.

It was *as I expected*.

### *Appositional Clauses*

§358. These fill out the meaning of a preceding noun in the main clause, to which they are attached by the conjunction *that*. The usual nouns are *fact*, *idea*, *notion*, *thing*, *proposal*, *suggestion*, *news*, etc. :—

The possibility *that you would disagree* never occurred to me.

We heard the news *that you were going to Europe soon*.

I like this about him, *that he never complains of bad luck.*

in the last of which the clause is in apposition to the demonstrative pronoun *this*.

### *Adjective Clauses*

§359. These give further information about a noun in the main clause. They are introduced by relative pronouns (*who, which, whose, that, as*) which take their case, if they have any, from the function they perform in the adjective clause, e.g., subject, object, genitive attributive.

Constructions with relative *that* and *as* must be watched, since they show no case. Relative *as* refers back to antecedents *same, such, or as* in the main clause and can itself be the subject of the adjective clause :—

These are not as good mangoes *as* were sent last week.

but, if *as* is to be the object and no other subject of the adjective clause is available, provisional *it* must be used as subject :—

These are not as good mangoes *as it* is usual to send us.

§360. Adjective clause may be of two kinds, Restrictive or Continuative, in meaning. A Restrictive clause adds information which is necessary :—

He is not a man *whose punctuality I would trust.*

and, if the relative pronoun is to be subject or object of its clause, is usually introduced by *that*, which can be omitted when it is the object :—

There is the man (*that*) *I saw prowling about the house.*  
A Continuative clause adds information which is interesting but not necessary. In it the relative pro-



noun (*who, whom, whose, which, only*) is equivalent to *and plus he, him, his, it*, but the latter constructions are seldom used instead of the relative:—

He is an irregular man, *whom I should scarcely trust.*

### (§§359-360). *Error with Adjective Clauses*

Error 487. He had an unfortunate love affair *and it* was responsible for the production of exquisite poetry.

Here, with *and it*, the writer has made two co-ordinate clauses when, since *affair* and *it* stand for the same thing, a continuative adjective clause with *which* would have been much better:—*love affair which was responsible*, etc.

### *Adverb Clauses*

§361. These express various kinds of circumstances attendant on the action of the main clause:—

- (i) *Time*:—You must come *when I call you.*
- (ii) *Place*:—Stand still *where you are.*
- (iii) *Cause or Reason*:—I am sorry (*that*) *you didn't tell me. He left early because he felt unwell.*
- (iv) *Manner*:—Do *as I tell you.*
- (v) *Purpose*:—Leave your address *so (that) I can write to you.*
- (vi) *Result*:—He begged *so pitifully (that) I could not refuse.*
- (vii) *Condition*:—I shall write again next week *if there is time.*
- (viii) *Concession*:—I will help him *although he doesn't deserve it. Great as was his wealth, his virtues were greater.*
- (ix) *Comparison*:—Give him as many mangoes *as he can carry. As often happens, he misjudged his strength. He had more money than he knew what to do with.*
- (x) *Restriction*:—He is still in London, *so far as I know.*

§362. Two points are to be noted in the above:—

(a) The conjunction *that*, whether alone or in combination, may always be omitted and usually is so in conversation.

(b) In clauses of Comparison, relative *as*, if used, may be subject or object of its clause. If the connective is *than*, the adverb clause often shares a part of the sentence with the main clause, e.g., in:—

He had more money *than he knew what to do with*.

the object *money* is shared by both the main verb *had* and the sub-verb *to do with*, and no other object is required in the sub-clause.

#### (§§361-362). *Errors with Adverb Clauses*

Error 488. *By seeing them often* he does not take an interest in them.

The phrase in italics is supposed to be a reason for the lack of interest expressed in the main clause that follows. But *by* and a gerund (*seeing*) expresses a method (*Onions are pickled by soaking in vinegar*), not a reason, which is usually expressed by *because* and a clause:—*Because he sees them often, he* etc.

Error 489. Hatred distracts our minds rather than it does harm to the person hated.

Error 490. This supremacy is no doubt much more limited than *what* it used to be.

Error 491. We want more control over our own affairs than *what* Government is prepared to grant.

In these clauses of comparison the error has been always the same, i.e. to add an unnecessary *it* or *what* as subject or object to the adverb clause. The error is made because the writers do not know that clauses of comparison opening with *than* can share a word in the main clause. Thus, in 489, *than* does harm to the person hated shares the subject *hatred*; in 490, *than* it used to be shares the predicative



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limited; in 491, *than Government is prepared to grant* shares the object *control*, and no *it* or *what* is required.

Error 492. Otherwise, as *it* happens in the present case, the State becomes a tool in the hands of speculators.

In this clause of Comparison, the relative *as* can act perfectly well as subject of the sub-clause (*as happens in the present case*) and no *it* is required.

Error 493. The subject of education, *important as it is*, also attracted the attention of Lord Bentinck.

Error 494. *Great as were his services to the Sadharan Brahma*, correspondingly great is the gap caused by his death.

Clauses of concession are almost as ill-understood as clauses of comparison. Both 493 and 494 contain clauses of concession with *as* where no concession is in question. 493 requires a clause of reason to show why Lord Bentinck was interested in education hence *because of its importance* or *because it was so important* should be substituted. In 494 the 'correspondence' between *services* and *gap* is best shown by a free adjunct:—*His services to the Sadharan Brahma having been great*, etc.

### *Omission of Subject in a Co-ordinated Clause*

§363. If each of two or more co-ordinate clauses have the same subject, it is omitted in the second and subsequent clauses:—

Julius Cæsar said: 'I came *and saw and conquered*'.

Whether you like him *or don't like him*, the man is useful.

But, if the adverb-part of the co-ordinating connectives is repeated, then the subject must be repeated (if a pronoun) or be represented by a pronoun:—

Whether you like him *or whether you don't*, the man is useful.

(§363). *Error with Subject in a Co-ordinated Clause*

Error 495. Whether the universities content themselves with disseminating knowledge, or *they* are more ambitious. . . .

Here, since the *whether* is not repeated and both clauses have the same subject (*universities*), no *they* is required.

EXERCISES ON CHAPTER XIII  
MAKING SENTENCES

Correct errors in the structure of the following sentences according to the paragraphs indicated, which should be read again carefully first :—

*Provisional* it and *Introductory* there (§§337-338).

Organized beating by lathis was not sufficient and therefore it took the place of beating by means of lathis covered by iron.

THE OBJECT (§§339-343).

There are no longer Mahapurushas like he.

He made it a point of presenting his books to the local library.

He will say himself, 'How happy I am !'

PREDICATIVE ADJUNCTS (§§347-349).

The professor called his efforts to master the classics as 'sapless'.

Tennyson found his position as a Poet Laureate to be very difficult.

We may well name them as the leisured class.

FREE ADJUNCTS (§§350-351).

On receipt of orders from a police officer, I received three blows with a lathi.

COMPLEX SENTENCES.

*Noun Clauses* (§§355-356).

That the Pandavs were unfortunate it is true, but they had largely themselves to blame.

But that this regulation does hamper trade and cause inconvenience to passengers it cannot be gainsaid.



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*Adjective Clauses* (§§359-360).

There is imperative need of such a University as is proposed to establish.

The work is not of the same kind as it has hitherto been the case.

*Adverb Clauses—Comparison* (§362).

Hatred distracts our minds rather than it does ill to the person hated.

The reform will be accomplished sooner than it seems at present possible.

Lord Curzon had as much confidence in his own ability to realize certain ideals as he was convinced of their adaptability to the East.

The cause of India should progress much more rapidly than it is the case at present.

We have got many more things to learn than what we think we have already learnt.

Mr. Lee tries to show that the cradle of the Semitic race is not in Western Asia, as it is generally believed, but in America.

## TEST PAPERS 13—(MAKING SENTENCES)

## 13 A

(1) Here is a breathless sentence containing confused adjective clauses. Make the sense clear by re-writing and dividing into suitable sentences:—

‘If this can happen to a patient who, having been seen and approved as suitable for treatment by the doctor responsible for the formula of the drug and who was in the practice of a medical practitioner, was so cautious as to confirm by inquiry from his chemists that it was safe to use the drug, then I have not the least hesitation in saying that in future further and more explicit instructions as to the use of the drug should be supplied with it by the distributors.’  
(*Sunday Chronicle*.)

(2) A student has here attempted to give a summary of the contents of Keats's famous sonnet *On Looking into Chapman's Homer*. Take what he says and, with the least possible alteration, put it into good English:—

'Keats had his eyes opened when he read Chapman's work, he said, although he had travell'd in realms of gold, and in many goodly states and kingdoms yet he had never seen anything so clear as when he read Chapman Homer and heard him speak out loud and bold, then he felt he was a watcher of skies, when a new planet swims into place, or he felt like Cortez who stood with his men on a silent peak in Darien staring at the Pacific.'

N.B.—You would be well advised to read the sonnet itself carefully before answering this question.

## 13 B

(3) Below is a number of sentences containing participial phrases which are badly fitted on to their main clauses. Correct each of them, by any means you like, so that the connection intended between phrase and clause is clear:—

1. Having mounted a few stairs, their light was unexpectedly extinguished by a sudden draught. Eventually, in a state of virtual exhaustion, the bedroom was reached.

2. Owing to a badly organized train service in this district, I would be glad if you would please look over the enclosed outline of a new time-table.

3. Returning from a holiday, some of the sadness of going home is forgotten.

4. Having abandoned all thoughts of what I expected to see when I arrived, it was a sorry experience when there were suddenly cries of 'Go away'.

5. Mr. Winkle had to dismount from his horse and, while trying to remount, the horse proved to be unapproachable.

6. Besides drinking coffee, wine was taken, and the men grumbled.



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7. In *She Stoops to Conquer* there are some great characters who will always be remembered having read the play.

8. Propped against a wall, now unconscious, now only too conscious of the awful odours of that foul place, that endless night dragged on.

9. When asked to take an umbrella, my anger got the better of me.

10. Born with the gift of vision, it seems that mankind takes unkindly to darkness.

11. Sir Roger found the signboard of an inn with his portrait on it and after painting a moustache on it and a few alterations it was changed into the Saracen's Head.

## 13 C

(4) The following speech of welcome was made at a dinner by the host to his guests, whom he had invited for the purpose of encouraging national unity. Can you, keeping as near as possible to his words and line of thought, put it into good English?

'Gentlemen and Ladies,

I hope the worthy gentlemen will direct their minds at the few words of mine also with great care. Thanks be to you all, who have accepted my invitation and have taken a care to present themselves in this hotel. I hope you are all very well aware that this is my annual evening dinner. I have given the establishment to my annual dinners about twenty years since and obviously this is the twentieth anniversary. My main idea of this dinner,—some times you will be under the impression that this is an annual feeding to the neighbouring country men who are over whelmed by the prevailing depression, with sympathy,—is not mainly to feed—of course it is a repast, no doubt,—but to establish a union among our nation, and to have a national feeling it must be given to every one at one and the same moment. But you know, though I am rich

in feeling yet not so financially. Even the whole world's wealthiest one is unable to give a feasting of that nature because you all know through common sense, its impossibility. Civilization first teaches us to be united; this unity is the main base of all the good. Unity is invincible. In the contrary the still barbarians, who live in the very hearts of the huge forests are in that stage still because of their non-unity. Jealousy, they practise in excess, and can be characterized as wild beasts, the qualities are so but the only difference is that of the appearance. Obviously I understand that you are dutiful and nation-loving gentlemen who even wish to sacrifice their lives concerning national matters. Hereby, as such I propose the health of you all, my guests who follow my path. May all of us be happy to participate in the future anniversaries also.

## 13 D

(5) Below are two perfectly correct passages by famous modern writers. The passages express, respectively, the daily routine of a business girl as she views it and the distracted thoughts of a man who has suddenly to entertain an unwelcome guest. Expand each passage, by putting in suitable predicates, subjects or objects, so as to give the same sense in a continuous style.

1. Unwilling dressing, lonely breakfast, the Subway, dull work, lunch, sleepiness after lunch, the hopelessness of three o'clock, the boss's ill-temper, then the Subway again, and a lonely flat, with no love, no creative work; and at last a long sleep so that she might be fresh for such another round of delight.

2. Mr. Corrington was thinking almost frantically. Too late to ring up his sister—in London anyway—can't have tea on the lawn—middle of winter—regrettable contretemps—what will neighbours say—dear, dear—make this as short and formal as possible.



## CHAPTER XIV

### CONCORD

§364. Concord means that two or more words in a sentence which correspond with each other in construction must also agree in (1) person, (2) number, (3) tense.

#### *Concord of Person*

§365. Concord of person applies to the subject of a sentence and its predicate, and lays down that both must be of either the 1st or 2nd or 3rd person, i.e., *I* must go with *am*, *he* with *is*, *you* with *are*. This apparently simple rule has two more difficult applications, the one in relative clauses, the other with double subjects.

Note that, in relative clauses, the relative pronoun is presumed to carry the same person as its antecedent, so that, e.g., in :—

It is not *I who am* to blame.

the *who*, referring to *I*, is 1st person and takes, therefore, a verb in the first person, *am*.

Secondly, note that, if a double subject contains two different persons, the verb agrees with the second, the one nearer it in order :—

Neither my brother nor *I sing*.

If this sounds queer, it can be avoided by using a co-ordinate construction, e.g. :—*My brother does not sing nor do I*.

(§365). *Error in Concord of Person*

Error 496. To *me who has* been engaged in mission work for 17 years this was a new thing.

This is the type of error with a relative clause. *Who* refers to *me*, which is 1st person, and must therefore carry 1st person *have*.

*Concord of Number*

§366. Concord of number means that a noun-subject and its predicate, its noun-predicative, any adjective which qualifies it and pronoun that refers to it should be all either singular or plural, so that their relation to each other can be seen at once.

SUBJECT AND PREDICATIVE VERB.

§367. It is normal for a singular subject to take a singular verb, a plural subject a plural verb. Care has, however, to be taken with (i) some plurals in -s, (ii) collective nouns, (iii) nouns followed by a prepositional adjunct, (iv) provisional *it* and introductory *there*.

(i) Nouns with only an -s form—like *alms*, *barracks*, *means*, *mathematics*, *phonetics*—generally take a plural verb :—

His *means are* not great.

Your *mathematics are* bad if you cannot do proportion.

but a singular verb if felt as a collective or an abstract :—

A large *barracks is* to be built here.

*Mathematics is* the joy of some but the bugbear of others.



## CONCORD

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Nouns in the plural giving titles of books or measures of time or space take a singular verb :—

*The Two Noble Kinsmen* is partly Shakespeare's work.

*Seventy years* is the span of man's life.

(ii) Collectives which are mass-words (*police, clergy, cattle, swine, vermin*) take a plural verb :—

*Police* were posted at every corner in the disturbed area.

unless thought of as a complete group :—

The London *police* is a body of men to be proud of.

Collectives which are thing-words take a singular if representing a group, a plural if representing the individuals composing it :—

The *Committee* is divided on this question but have agreed to a compromise.

(iii) A singular noun with an *of*-adjunct in the plural should take a singular verb :—

A *heap* of books was on the table.

but, by what is called Attraction (of the verb to the nearer noun) is sometimes wrongly made to take a plural (*A heap of books were on the table*).

(iv) Provisional *it* is a real subject and takes a singular verb :—

*It* is two men we want, not one.

but introductory *there* is not a real subject, and the verb takes the number of the real noun-subject which follows :—

*There are two men* wanted, not one.

(§§366-367). *Errors in Concord of Number*

*Subject and Predicative Verb.*

Error 497. *Many a home* have been wrecked by extravagance.

*Many* by itself is a plural, but *many a* is a singular and requires a singular verb:—*Many a home has*, etc.

Error 498. The recently published *statement of accounts tell* its own tale.

A specimen of the error by Attraction—*tell* is made plural from the nearest noun *accounts* in the *of*-adjunct. But the real subject is *statement*, and the verb should be *tells*.

Error 499. The *fall in revenue in Government coffers have* compelled the Government to close down over 100 beds in the Government hospitals.

Again Attraction, but with another prepositional adjunct than *of*. *Have* is made to agree with *coffers*, part of an *in*-adjunct, instead of with its true subject *fall*, which requires *has*.

#### SUBJECT AND NOUN-PREDICATIVE.

368. The noun-predicative has the same number as the subject if the verb expresses identity:—

Both his *sons* are *barristers*.

but need not agree if the verb expresses composition:—

*University life* is not all *games* nor all *lectures*.

*Error in Concord of Subject and Noun-Predicative*

Error 500. Thus *many a widow* dies *social martyrs*.

Once again, *many a* taken as a plural, even although the verb is rightly put in the singular. Being a singular, it requires a singular noun in the predicative—*a social martyr*.

#### NOUNS AND ATTRIBUTIVE ADJUNCTS.

§369. These agree in number, and difficulty is only felt with the plurals in *-s* and collectives mentioned in 367. With these the rule is the same for attributives as for verbs, e.g., a plural noun measuring time may take *a* before it:—

He has had *a bad ten minutes* with the headmaster.



*Errors in Concord with Nouns and Attributive Adjuncts*

Error 501. *Many a concert parties* have given programmes.

Another example of the mistake with *many a*, which is a singular and should here take *party*, not *parties*.

Error 502. Her Highness is maintaining *more than one institutions* at her own expense.

Here the mistake is to take *more than one* as a kind of compound and plural numeral and so put its noun (*institutions*) in the plural. But *more than one* is not a compound word; it is a plural pronoun *more* with a prepositional adjunct *than one institution*, and the *one* requires a singular noun with itself. It would be equally possible, of course, to say *more institutions than one*, but not to mix the two constructions.

Error 503. *These handful of speculators*.

A case of Attraction, where *speculators* in the *of*-adjunct has made the attributive (*these*) into a plural. But the attributive qualifies the headword *handful* and should be *this*.

Error 504. *This upper class philanthropists*.

Another kind of Attraction, where the attributive (*this*) has been wrongly made a singular by attraction to the nearest noun *class*, which is, however, a converted adjective qualifying the headword *philanthropists*. The attributive should agree with *philanthropists* and be *these*.

## NOUN AND REFERRING PRONOUN.

§370. Referring pronouns must agree in number with the nouns to which they refer, according as these are taken as singular or plural:—

*The Federated Malay States* are said to be very beautiful and I should like to visit *them*.

*The United States* is a great country; *it* is the home of great experiments.

(§370). *Errors in Concord between Nouns and Referring Pronouns*

Error 505. It is *mothers* that mould a nation, but, alas, we are lacking *it*.

An error by a kind of Attraction, *it* being made singular to agree with the nearest noun (nation), whereas it refers to *mothers* and should be *them*.

Error 506. *Many Parsis* can help India's cause by taking to politics to *his* or *her* utmost capacity.

The singular *his* or *her* cannot refer back to a plural *Parsis*; only to *their utmost capacity* is possible.

*Concord of Tense*

§371. This means an agreement in tense-forms between the verb in the main clause and the verb or verbs in its sub-clause or -clauses. Briefly, concord of tense means that, when a speech is reported indirectly, the verb or verbs in the speech shall be in their original tense if the verb in the main clause is present in sense, but shall be converted into a corresponding past tense if the main verb is past in sense.

PRESENT TENSE IN MAIN CLAUSE.

§372. The tenses that express present time are the Present, the Perfect and the Future. After such in the main clause, a reported speech in a sub-clause remains in its original tense, whether it was present, past or future. Thus, if the original speech was *I went home* or *I shall go home*, it is reported thus:—

*I have said* (Perf.) *that I shall go home* (or *that I went home*).

*He says* (Pres.) *that he will go home* (or *that he went home*).

*I shall say* (Fut.) *that I shall go home* (or *that I went home*).



## PAST TENSE IN MAIN CLAUSE.

§373. Reported speech is not so easy when a past tense is in the main clause. It is simple only when the original speech was already past in time; then it remains in its original tense after a past tense in the main clause:—

DIRECT	INDIRECT
<i>I went there last week</i> (Pret.).	<i>He said that he went there</i> <i>last week.</i>
<i>I had also gone there</i> <i>the week before</i> (Pluperf.).	<i>He said that he had also gone</i> <i>there the week before.</i>
<i>I should go, if I could</i> (Pret. Fut.).	<i>He said that he would go, if</i> <i>he could.</i>
<i>I should have gone, if</i> <i>I could</i> (Pluperf. Fut.).	<i>He said that he would have</i> <i>gone if he could.</i>

§374. But, if the original speech was present or future in time, then, in reporting after a verb in the past, it must go into a corresponding past tense according to the following scheme:—

DIRECT	INDIRECT
Present tense becomes ( <i>I go every day</i> ).	Preterite ( <i>He said that he went every</i> <i>day</i> ).
Perfect tense becomes ( <i>I have gone</i> ).	Pluperfect ( <i>He said that he had gone</i> ).
Present Future becomes ( <i>I shall go</i> ).	Preterite Future ( <i>He said that he would go</i> ).
Perfect Future becomes ( <i>I shall have gone</i> ).	Pluperfect Future ( <i>He said that he would</i> <i>have gone</i> ).

Only in one case is there no change of tense when an original present tense is reported in the past, and

that is when the present represents an action that is timeless, i.e. is a Neutral Present :—

## DIRECT

There *are* many wise sayings in Shakespeare.

## INDIRECT

He *knew* that there *are* many wise sayings in Shakespeare.

(§§370-374). *Errors in Concord of Tense*

## (a) PRESENT TENSE IN MAIN CLAUSE.

Here the original tense remains in reported speech. We must, therefore, find out what was the original tense spoken and keep that.

Error 507. We *hope* that the Associations *would try* to give effect to these suggestions.

Here the original tense of the sub-clause was *will try*, and it must be kept after the present *hope*.

Error 508. Mediaeval history *is* not without instances when emperors *had humbled* themselves before the house of God.

The original verb in the adverb clause was either *humbled* or *have humbled*, and this remains unchanged after *is* in the main clause.

Error 509. They *have set* their faces against the idea of marrying their daughter before she *finished* her education at college.

What the presumed parents said originally was either 'Our daughter shall not marry before she *finishes* (or *has finished*) her education at college', and these are the tense-forms to retain after *have set*.

Error 510. It *will be* some time before he *realized* his mistake.

Here the 'realization' is to be regarded as happening some time in the future. In an adverb clause (*before*, etc.) the



proper tense to express the future time is the present, therefore correct as *before he realizes*, etc.

Error 511. Unless the heart and the head *work* together in harmony, no permanent progress *could be* possible.

If the whole of this is meant to be the original statement, then the general sense demands expression of present time and the preterite *could* in the main clause should be *can*. If, however, the whole is meant to be reported, then, with *could* in the main clause, there should be *worked* in the subordinate adverbial clause.

(b) PAST TENSE IN MAIN CLAUSE.

Error 512. He *asked* her if she *wants* to take a walk with him.

Errors of this kind are due to the Indian languages not changing an original present into a past after a past main verb, i.e. having no such rule of Concord as in English. Of course, after a preterite *asked* in the main clause, there should be a preterite *wanted* in the reported interrogative clause.

Error 513. There *was* a time when Lord Curzon *seems* to have been confident of carrying the public with him.

Again, the main verb in the past (*was*) requires the present of the sub-clause (*seems*) to be turned into a corresponding past :—*seemed*.

CONDITIONAL CLAUSES.

§375. As great difficulty seems to be experienced by Indian students with tenses in *if*-clauses, these are taken by themselves for special consideration. Mistakes are made, not in reporting conditional statements, but in the original statements themselves and generally in the *if*-clause, though sometimes in the main clause. The chief cause of error seems to be a muddled idea that a past tense (generally the

preterite) is always needed in conditional statements, generally in the conditional clause itself. But this is true only if the conditional event is unlikely or contrary to fact, when, of course, a modal tense (preterite or pluperfect) has to be used. In fact, the cause of error is, once again, ignorance of the modal uses of the preterite and pluperfect tenses.

Since conditions may be conceived as concerned with both past, present and future time, they will be considered under each of these heads.

#### PAST TIME.

§376. Since past conditions can only be in the mind, not in fact, only modal tenses can be used, pluperfect in the *if*-clause, pluperfect future in the main clause:—

If he *had* come { I *should have spoken* to him (Active).  
                              { he *would have been seen* (Passive).

#### (§376). *Error with Conditional Past Time*

Error 514. If the Commissioner of Police had declined to yield, he *had* to pit himself against not only the organisers of the demonstration but . . . .

Here the writer has got the modal pluperfect (*had declined*) right in the *if*-clause, but then seems satisfied with the same tense in the main clause (*had*). He requires the modal pluperfect future, *would have had*.

#### PRESENT TIME.

§377. Here we must distinguish between events (a) timeless, (b) likely in time, (c) unlikely in time or contrary to fact.

(a) Timeless events take a present tense in both clauses:—

If what he says *is* true, there *is* no more to be said.



(b) Likely events in time take a present tense in the *if*-clause, a present future in the main clause :—

If he *is* here, I *shall speak* to him.

(c) Unlikely events use a modal preterite future in the *if*-clause with a present future in the main :—

If he *should be* here, I *shall speak* to him.

Events contrary to fact use modals in both clauses, a preterite in the *if*-clause, a preterite future in the main :—

If he *stood* here, I *should speak* to him.

#### (§377). *Errors with Conditional Present Time*

Mistakes are made exclusively with timeless present events, to which preterites (modal?) are wrongly attached in the *if*-clause.

Error 515. He threatens them with severe action if the demonstrations *were* not peaceful.

Since the main verb (*threatens*) is present in tense and the action threatened is timeless, the tense in the *if*-clause should be present, i.e. *are*.

Error 516. The Government *cannot* go on if the people *did* not pay their taxes.

Here the writer means either a timeless fact (i.e. both present tenses—*cannot go on if the people do not*, etc.), or else an event contrary to fact (i.e. both modal preterites—*could not go on if the people did not*, etc.).

#### FUTURE TIME.

§378. Here, events may be either (a) likely, or (b) unlikely. Also the two events may take place together, or else the main event may take place first, which affects the tense of the main clause.

(a) Likely events require a present tense in the *if*-clause, a present future in the main clause if the

two events are together but a perfect future if the main event precedes the other :—

If he *comes*, I *shall speak* to him (two events together).

If he *comes* after that time, I *shall have finished* my work (main event precedes).

(b) Unlikely events take a modal preterite in the if-clause, a modal preterite future in the main clause if they happen together :—

If he *came* (or *were to come*), I *should speak* to him.

a modal preterite future in the if-clause, a plain perfect future in the main clause if the main event precedes :—

If he *should come* after that time, I *shall have finished* my work.

#### (§378). *Errors with Conditional Future Time*

The question to decide here is whether the supposed event is likely or unlikely, and therefore whether the clauses should go into the present and present future (likely) or the modal preterite and preterite future (unlikely). The whole construction must be either in the one tense-sequence or the other.

Error 517. If we *speak* ill of the dead, they *would* never come to know of it.

Here the if-clause (*speak*) suggests likelihood, the main clause (*would come*) unlikely. It must be either the one or the other, i.e. either both likely (*If we speak . . . they will never come*, etc.) or both unlikely (*If we spoke . . . they would never come*, etc.).

Error 518. It *will be* worse than useless if they *did* not take advantage of what English life and society offer them.

The same confusion as before. Either the event is likely (*It will be worse . . . if they do not*, etc.) or unlikely (*It would be worse . . . if they did not*, etc.).



Error 519. If a search *were* made in the records, we *may* find further particulars.

One more example of the same. Either the search is likely (*If a search is made . . . we may*, etc.) or unlikely (*If a search were made . . . we might*, etc.).

## EXERCISES ON CHAPTER XIV

### CONCORD

Correct errors of Concord in the following sentences after reading again the paragraphs indicated:—

#### I. *Person.*

§365.

She has saluted me, who is not even fit to be a servant of one who serves a Vaishnava.

#### II. *Number.*

§367 (iii). (Subject and Predicative Verb).

It is curious to note how widespread the use of some of these symbols are.

The social life of great nations have mainly been shaped by political forces.

He says that the stars, moon and the sun are ruled by one fixed law, and is also governed by it, like the world.

§369. (Nouns and Attributive Adjuncts).

Many a charitable trusts have been re-organized.

§370. (Nouns and Referring Pronouns).

Everyone will assist with their whole might.

The French Revolution had shattered the foundations of society and no one had any courage to reconstruct it.

Many a man running after wealth and fame find at last that their youthful hopes have misled them.

III. *Tense.*

## §372. (Main Clause in Present).

\* We hope the publishers would find it possible to continue the series.

They keep their minds open to truth, from whatever direction it might come.

They go cheerfully, happy in the thought that a better life was in store for them.

Nothing can turn him from a course which he had settled in his own mind to be the right one.

I feel confident that these sacrifices would not go in vain.

Unless a definite stand was taken, things are likely to slip back into their former bad state.

## §373. (Main Clause in Past).

He asked to him that why he has come.

She asked her friend to go where we shall be more private.

The first time I had been there I saw you.

The Madras Mail *predicted* some time ago that prices of produce will fall.

The Shankaracharya fell a victim to cholera, which is severely raging in the district.

## CONDITIONAL CLAUSES.

## §378. (Future Time).

If he publishes it, it would sell well.

If a man but hold fast to his convictions, things would come right in the end.

If this help were to come, we shall be less anxious.

No Indian will be true to his interests if he failed to adapt himself to the exigencies of modern life.

If there were young men thirsting for higher education, high schools and colleges will spring up.

If proper men be selected, a good push would have been given to public life.



## TEST PAPERS 14—(CONCORD)

## 14 A

(1) What is meant by Concord in grammar, and what relations of Concord are there in an English sentence?

(2) What parts of an English sentence must show Concord of Number? Comment on any peculiarities of concord of number in the following sentences:—

1. Every year there are a number of bathing fatalities. Happily the number is decreasing, but the number of annual deaths attributable to bathing is still far too large. (*The Field*).

2. It is estimated that the number of Swedish unemployed totals 200,000 in a population of just over 6 millions. To meet this problem the Government are not only planning extensive relief work, but is also understood to be considering a national system of unemployment insurance. (*The Times*).

(3) Turn the following sentences into Indirect Relation:—

1. My brother says: 'I shall give you a present for the New Year. What will you have?'

2. They have written us: 'We shall be coming to see you next week. Please arrange rooms for us in a hotel near your house.'

I replied to their letter: 'I am sorry I shall not be able to meet you at the station, but you and your luggage will be taken direct to the hotel by my chauffeur in our car.'

3. A poet once wrote:

'Time, like an ever-rolling stream,  
Bears all its sons away.'

## 14 B

(4) Correct any errors of Concord in the following sentences:—

1. It is generally expected that the Government would attempt to revive the hand-loom industry.

2. Signatures were obtained without the signatories knowing what they are signing.

3. It is to be remembered that, however much the Councils might expand, they must always have an official majority.

4. We were inclined to believe that special inquiries will put an end to this unlawful conduct.

5. Now and again it may so happen that the wrong man would have received help.

6. It would not be long before a system of relief would have been inaugurated.

7. Fanaticism leads to all kinds of diabolical methods, which deluged the world with blood in the name of religion.

8. Were there any nationalistic writers before English schools and colleges had been established?

9. All this requires to be greatly modified before we could be welded into a great nation.

(5) Correct any errors of Concord in the following conditional sentences:—

1. It is as much as he can do if he kept body and soul together.

2. We are not told what the wife is to do if the commandment were broken.

3. If we could, by degrees, only stop this custom of infant marriage, we shall be emancipated from several evils.

4. If workers were to come out in large numbers, the problem will be more easily solved.

5. If British statesmen only remembered that India is listening to their orations, they will pause in their eloquence.

6. It will be a great benefit to public life if men of Mr. X.'s culture and character came forward more frequently.

7. If all communities would agree upon a common line of action, their movement will have an electrical effect.

8. Such impressions, if they take root in the minds of the general public, would prove very harmful.



## CHAPTER XV

### WORD-ORDER

#### THE IMPORTANCE OF WORD-ORDER.

§379. The meaning of a sentence depends on the relation of the words in it to each other as well as on the meaning of each word. Now, in Indian languages and in certain European ones (notably the classical languages, Greek and Latin), this relation is shown by the inflexions of the words. The order of words in a sentence in any of these languages can, therefore, be varied a good deal without altering the meaning of the sentence.

But in English, which has so few inflexions, the meaning of a sentence is decided, to a large extent, by the order in which its component parts are placed and, generally, a change in the word-order of a sentence will cause a change in its meaning. This is to say that English has a comparatively fixed word-order for each kind of a sentence, and a careful study of this order is of the highest importance to Indian students, accustomed as they are to great possible variability in word-order in their own languages.

#### KINDS AND PARTS OF SENTENCES.

§380. The order, then, of the various parts of a sentence is decided by what the speaker wants to express, and sentences are classified by their meaning.

The two main kinds of expression required are a Statement and a Question, e.g. :—

Shirin is leaving her English exercise unfinished till tomorrow.

Where did Keshav get his foot hurt?

Each of the above examples contains all the possible component parts of a sentence, which are:—(a) the Subject, (b) the Verbal Predicate, (c) the Object, (d) Predicative Adjuncts, (e) Attributive Adjuncts, (f) Adverb Adjuncts, i.e.:—

*Shirin* (a) *is leaving* (b) *her English* (e) *exercise* (c) *unfinished* (d) *till to-morrow* (f).

*Where* (f) *did* (b) *Keshav* (a) *get* (b) *his* (e) *foot* (c) *hurt* (d)?

### NORMAL AND INVERTED WORD-ORDER.

§381. These terms apply only to the order of Subject and Verbal Predicate. In the first of the sentences above, we have the subject followed by the verbal predicate (*Shirin is leaving*); this is called Normal Order. In the second sentence, we have the verbal predicate (or the auxiliary only, if there is an auxiliary) followed by the subject (*did Keshav get*); this is called Inverted Order.

Word-order will now be studied in each of the parts of a sentence in turn.

#### A. Subject and Verbal Predicate

##### (I) STATEMENTS.

(a) *In Simple Sentences and Main Clauses.*

§382. Normal order is usual:—

*He* (subj.) *has come* (vbl. Pred.) out first in the exam. but—what is specially to be noticed—Inverted order occurs:—

(i) always when the sentence begins with a negative adverbial which modifies the whole sentence:—

*Never before* (neg. advl.) *has* (aux.) *he* (subj.) *done so* (rest of vbl. pred.).



(but not when the negative adverbial modifies only a part of the sentence:—*Hardly a minute passed before he returned*).

(ii) always in sentences without an object when some other part of the sentence than the subject begins and when the subject is more important than the verb:—

*Next to Jamshed* (advl.) *sat* (vbl. pred.) *his father* (subj.).

(but not when the verb is more important:—*Down he sat*).

(iii) possibly—though Normal order is more usual—in sentences with an object, if the object or an adverbial begins the sentence:—

*Numbers of men* (obj.) *have* (aux.) *they* (subj.) sent away.

*Many a time* (advl.) *have* (aux.) *I* (subj.) seen him in my childhood.

#### (b) *In Subordinate Clauses.*

§383. Normal order is usual:—

He told me that *he was going* to the country to-morrow. but there is Inversion if a negative adverbial starts the sub-clause:—

He declares that *never did he* do such a thing.

(§§382-383). *Errors in Order of Subject and Verb in Statements*

#### (a) *Simple Sentences and Main Clauses.*

Errors are most common here when negative adverbials begin the sentence, the normal order being wrongly used. Occasionally there are mistakes with sentences without an object.

#### *Negative Adverbials.*

Error 520. *Neither the owner has it nor others can get it.*

Here is the error twice over in one sentence composed of two co-ordinate clauses. Since the clauses start, respectively, with negative adverbial (*neither*) or conjunction (*nor*), the order must be verb (i.e. auxiliary) followed by subject:—*Neither has the owner got it, nor can others get it.*

Error 521. *To none of these questions a reply can be given.*

Of the same pattern as the previous error. The opening negative adverbial *To none* requires inversion of subject and verb:—*can a reply be given.*

Error 522. *Not only I feel but I hear.*

Error 523. *No sooner he saw him than he ran away.*

If, as in the above, the verb is in the present or preterite, Inversion is made by supplying the auxiliary verb *to do*:—*Not only do I feel, etc. and No sooner did he see him, etc.*

*Sentences without Object.*

Error 524. *Especially the telegram about the desecration of certain Hindu images is more disgusting.*

Here the verb *is* has less importance than its subject *telegram*, and therefore, since the adverbial *especially* starts the sentence, verb must come before subject:—*Especially is the telegram, etc.*

(b) *Subordinate Clauses.*

Error 525. *Hamlet failed as a reformer since only in the end he brought his uncle to punishment.*

The negative adverbial *only in the end* requires inversion of *he* and *brought*:—*since only in the end did he bring, etc.*

## (2) QUESTIONS.

§384. Inverted word-order is usual:—

What *does* (aux.) *he* (subj.) think of this business?

What else *could* (aux.) *you* (subj.) have done?

but, since the question-word always begins the sentence, Normal order is used when the question-word



is a pronoun-subject or a pronominal adjunct used as a subject :—

*Who* (pron.-subj.) *sent* (vbl. pred.) you these flowers?  
*How many* (pronom. adjt.) *people* (subj.) *came* (vbl. pred.) to the show?

(§384). *Errors in Order of Subject and Predicate in Questions*

Since, in Indian languages, a question is shown by the use of a special particle (*kay? ke? etc.*) while subject and verbal predicate generally remain in normal order, the mistake is often made of imitating that construction in English.

Error 526. *What a man can do on such occasions?*

The question-word *what* does not act alone to show the question (as do *kay, ke, etc.*); it is necessary also to invert subject and verbal predicate:—*What can a man do, etc.*

Error 527. *What else could have been the official universities of India?*

Here the inversion of subject and verbal predicate has been carried too far. When the verbal predicate contains one or more auxiliaries, Inversion means placing the subject after the first auxiliary, while the rest of the verbal predicate follows the subject :—*What else could the official universities of India have been?*

Error 528. *They are wondering why is the Government taking drastic steps.*

Not Inverted order but Normal is followed by subject and predicative verb in a reported question, hence:—*They are wondering why the Government is taking, etc.*

Error 529. *The people are sooner or later sure to find out who their real friends are, and who are not.*

Here *who* is the subject of the sub-clause, while *friends* is the complement of the original question, hence the Normal order required is *who are their real friends.*

B. *Order of Objects*

§385. There may be either (a) only one object, viz., a Direct, or (b) two objects, an Indirect and a Direct.

(a) Since a noun-object has no inflexion to show case, it must be made to follow the verb immediately; pronoun-objects do likewise :—

I didn't like the *man* at all and sent *him* away.  
An object can be front-shifted for emphasis, and question-word objects always come first :—

*This book* I like, *that one* I don't.

*What* are you talking about?

(b) An Indirect object comes before a Direct :—

His father sent *Shamrao* (I.O.) a basket of mangoes (D.O.).

but, when both objects are pronouns, usage allows either to come first :—

Are those letters for me? Give *me* (I.O.) *them* (D.O.) or Give *them* (D.O.) *me* (I.O.).

and *it* as a Direct object generally comes first :—

Give *it* me.

C. *Order of Predicative Adjuncts*

§386. These immediately follow the object they qualify :—

They have appointed Mr. X. *headmaster*.

and, in free adjuncts, the predicative adjunct follows its subject noun or pronoun :—

I have received this book with its cover *torn*.

D. *Order of Attributive Adjuncts*

§387. These, consisting of either adjectives, present and past participles, converted nouns or some adverbs (*almost, nearly, even, quite, rather*), normally



precede the noun they qualify. Their order amongst themselves is decided by (a) usage and (b) connection with the noun.

(a) Usage dictates that :—

(i) some special adjectives and pronouns of number and quantity (*viz., all, both, double, half*) shall come first of all attributives :—

*All my best books. Half a pound. Double the right quantity.*

(ii) apart, from the above, demonstrative adjectives and the articles (*the, a*) shall come first; in their absence, pronominal adjectives come first; next come numeral adjectives :—

*This exciting story. His two young daughters.  
Ten long weary days.*

If demonstrative and pronominal adjectives have to appear together, the demonstrative forces the pronominal to follow the noun as an independent genitive :—

*This old publication of theirs.*

(iii) adverbs qualifying a noun with the help of an article come before the article :—

*He was quite a child, almost a baby when I saw him last.*

*Do you think that is quite the thing to do?*

(b) Connection with the noun demands that the adjective attached earlier in fact to the noun shall go nearer to it :—

*You dirty little boy!*

*i.e., the boy was little before he was dirty.*

§388. Attributives follow their noun under the following principal conditions :—

(a) when the attributive is an adjective itself qualified by a prepositional adjective or when it expresses measure :—

This is a place *suitable for our purpose*.

We have just seen a man *seven feet high*.

(b) when the attributive is composed of a preposition plus noun or an adjective plus noun :—

The man *in the street*. The people *next door*.

(c) when the attributive is a past participle retaining its verbal force or is a *to*-infinitive :—

For reasons *given*. In time *to come*.

(§§387-388). *Errors in the Order of Attributive Adjuncts*

Error 530. *Our all people* are interested in the movement.

requires alteration into *All our*, etc. since *all* is one of the special attributives that come before every other.

Error 531. These statues are seen from *still longer* a distance.

must be *a still longer*, since articles, apart from special attributives, come first.

Error 532. Haeckel's 'Riddle of the Universe' may be purchased *almost* for the price of a cup of coffee.

Error 533. They sternly set their faces *even* against an appearance of speaking to the gallery.

These adverbs *almost* and *even* are here attributive adjuncts to the nouns *price* and *appearance* and should stand just before the articles which share the attribution :—*for almost the price; against even an appearance*, etc.

Error 534. In the olden times the *inquisitive* soul *for news* applied to the old women of the village.

The writer does not know how to handle an adjective qualified by a prepositional adjunct. It should follow the



noun so that its own adjunct can follow it immediately:—  
*the soul inquisitive for news.*

Error 535. Mr. Petrie's *new interesting* book on the republic of Colombia.

The book was *new* before it was read and could, therefore, be *interesting*, hence *interesting new book*.

Error 536. One can easily imagine what dreadful pests the Thugs were *of society*.

Here the prepositional adjunct *of society* belongs to *pests* and must therefore follow it immediately:—*what dreadful pests of society the Thugs were.*

### E. Order of Adverb Adjuncts

§389. Adverb adjuncts stand as near the word they qualify as possible and normally precede that word. This occurs under the two following conditions:—

(1) When the words qualified are adjectives or adverbs:—

This is an *exceedingly* interesting book.

I hope to come to see you *very* shortly.

(2) When the words qualified are simple tenses of transitive verbs or even tenses formed with *to do*, if the qualifying adverb is one of indefinite time or a sentence adverb or an emphasized adverb of degree:—

I *always* like his work (Indef. Time).

He *really* knows his business (Sentence Adverb).

He *even* remembered my birthday (Emphatic Adv. of Degree).

He *really does* know his business (Tense with *to do*).

I *never did* hear such nonsense (Tense with *to do*).

and Sentence Adverbs can precede the whole sentence which they qualify:—

*Apparently*, he wasn't there.

§390. But adverb adjuncts follow the word qualified, under the following conditions :—

(a) If the adverb is composed of preposition plus noun :—

He was a man simple *of speech and appearance*.

(b) If the adverb qualifies an intransitive verb or a non-finite part of a verb :—

He walked *for hours*.

Hearing *suddenly* that he was ill, I went *at once* to see him.

(c) If the verb is transitive, in which case the adverb follows the object since it is a cardinal rule that nothing, in English, shall come between verb and object :—

We liked him *immensely*.

He has done his work *beautifully*.

(d) If the transitive verb is in a compound tense, the adverb follows the last auxiliary, when the auxiliary is not stressed :—

I have *always* liked his work.

He has been *severely* censured.

You should *really* know better than that.

except adverbials of time and *even*, which follow the first auxiliary :—

He has *never* been found wanting.

The parcel might *even* have been sent by hand.

and so do *not* as a sentence adverb and the sentence adverbs *moreover*, *therefore*, *hence*, *though* if they do not start the sentence :—

He should *not* have been chosen.

You might, *therefore*, be transferred to another place.

(e) If the verb is compounded with an adverb, that adverb follows its verb immediately :—

Gopal has *fallen down* the stairs.



## WORD-ORDER

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but pronoun-objects must, and other short objects may, come between the verb and its adverb :—

*Wrap it up* and *send it on* to me to-morrow.

They're *sending Shapur in* for matriculation.

§391. *Only*, *yet*, *quite*, *rather* and *enough* present special characteristics of their own.

*Only* precedes the word it qualifies :—

I've seen him *only once*.

but has the habit of preceding the verb, even if it qualifies another word coming later, in which case both *only* and the word it really qualifies are stressed :—

I've *only* seen him *once*.

*Yet* varies in position according to its meaning. When numerical, meaning 'additional' it precedes the word qualified :—

*Yet another* box ! I can't find room for it.

but, when temporal, it usually follows :—

He's too young *yet*.

*Quite* and *rather* precede the adjective they qualify and may either precede or follow an indefinite article with the adjective, but with varying meaning. If preceding the article, they are sentence-adverbs; if following, they qualify only the adjective :—

This is *quite* (or *rather*) a good story.

This is a *quite* (or *rather*) good story.

the former meaning that the speaker accepts on the whole that the story is good, the latter that the goodness of the story is being actually measured.

*Enough* follows adjectives and a predicative noun :—

This stick is *long enough*.

Is that a *warm enough* suit?

Be *man enough* to try !

but precedes or follows a non-predicative noun :—

I haven't *enough time* (or *time enough*) for everything.

(§§389-391). *Errors in the Order of Adverb Adjuncts.*  
(§389).

(a) *Preceding Position.*

Error 537. They have been *intensely more* religious than all their critics.

Error 538. You are *not still* opening your eyes.

In these the *more* qualifies the adverb *intensely* and the *still* qualifies the *not opening* and must precede them:—*more intensely religious; still not opening*, etc.

Error 539. *I, on the advice of an experienced friend, decided* to go to Bombay.

Even though *decided* is a simple tense of a transitive verb and an adverbial should precede it, a long adverbial should not, in this way, cut off a short subject from its verb. Place the long adverbial first in the sentence:—*On the advice of an experienced friend, I decided*, etc.

Error 540. Parasu Rama did not simply reclaim the territory, but peopled it, gave it laws, and *had even* coins struck.

Error 541. Sir E. Carson would have created a situation for which he *did not evidently* bargain.

Here the sentence-adverbs *even* and *evidently* should stand before their verbs, possibly even before the subject:—*even had coins struck; for which he evidently* (or *evidently he*) *did not bargain*.

Error 542. The *major* part of the cost *at least* will be borne by Government.

The adverb *at least* qualifies the adjective *major* and should be placed as near it as possible, either right in front (*At least the major part*, etc.) or, being composed of preposition and superlative adjective, immediately behind the noun (*The major part at least*, etc.).

(§390).

(b) *Following Position.*

Error 543. The rates *still are* so exorbitant.



*Are* is an intransitive verb, and the adverb *still* should follow it:—*The rates are still*, etc.

Error 544. The real object of these Sabhas is not so much *apparently* to arrive at a satisfactory solution as to . . . .

It is best for a sentence adverb (*apparently*), if it does not start the sentence, to follow the intransitive verb immediately:—*is apparently not so much*, etc.

Error 545. The Government ought to *in the interests of public justice* direct their attention to these matters.

A split infinitive, where the *to* is divided from its verb-form by an adverb, is not always bad style (*I should like to really understand his poetry* is better, in our opinion, than *I should like really to understand*, etc.) but, if it is used, the adverb should be short and closely connected with its infinitive. A deafening split, as with the long adverbial in the error given, is intolerable; the adverbial should follow the verb *ought*:—*The Government ought in the interests of public justice to direct*, etc.

Error 546. Mr. K. uniformly held *before him* the scales of justice even.

Error 547. He also dwelt upon, *with admirable ability*, the works of Bengal.

Here are two examples of adverbials placed in impossible positions, the former between a transitive verb (*held*) and its object (*the scales*), the latter between a preposition (*upon*) and its object (*the works*). In the former case, the adverbial is best placed at the end, after the predicative even:—*Uniformly held the scales of justice even before him*. In the latter, it can go at the end or, better, directly after the verb:—*dwelt, with admirable ability, upon the works*, etc.

Error 548. But custom, *any more than an act of Parliament*, cannot eradicate indolence.

A transitive verb with an auxiliary should have its adverbial, usually, after the auxiliary:—*But custom cannot, any more than an act of Parliament, eradicate*, etc.

Error 549. It cannot be *moreover* called a monument.

*Moreover* is one of the sentence adverbs which, if they do not begin the sentence, should come after the first auxiliary of a verb compounded with auxiliaries: *It cannot, moreover, be called*, etc.

Error 550. I will *take* the matters that caused Lord Curzon's unpopularity *by turn*.

Here *by turn* is an adverbial compounded with the verb *take* and should follow it immediately:—*I will take by turn the matters*, etc.

Error 551. We cannot *put down* the discontent of to-day to the impoverishment of the people.

By contrast with the former, *put down* in this error is not a compound verb. As a compound, *put down* means either 'to suppress' (*The authorities have put down the disturbances*) or else 'to enter' (*He has put down my name for membership*). Neither of these meanings is designed in the sentence given; rather *down* qualifies the verb *put* in a looser manner and must come after the object:—*We cannot put the discontent of to-day down to the impoverishment*, etc.

(§391).

*Special Adverbs.*

Errors that follow apply to the position of *yet*, *quite* and *only*.

Error 552. Society is *yet* unready to answer the call of reform.

Here *yet* is supposed to suggest addition and should follow the adjective it qualifies:—*Society is unready yet*, etc.

Error 553. Preparatory to entry into another world *yet*.

*Yet* here is numerical in sense and must precede its adjective:—*into yet another world*.

Error 554. You are *a quite* stranger to us.

*Quite*, qualifying a noun unqualified by an adjective, must precede the article:—*quite a stranger*, etc.



Error 555. For an extravagant man a vast fortune will *only* suffice.

*Only* precedes the word it qualifies which, in this case, is *vast*:—*only a vast fortune will suffice*.

Error 556. All the desired reforms will come to us in time *only if* the Government understands aright the forces which are working for them.

Here *only* qualifies the verb *understands* or else the whole of the clause after *if* and should immediately precede the one or the other:—*if the Government only understands* or *else if only the Government understands*, etc.

### *Order of Preposition and its Object.*

§392. The object to a preposition usually follows it immediately, but, under the following two conditions, a preposition may stay with the verb while the object of the preposition precedes:—

(1) when the prepositional object starts the sentence or clause, either through being front-shifted for emphasis:—

*Such a man* I do not care *for*.

or through being a pronoun:—

*What* did you do that *for*?

He is not a man *whom* I would do much *for*.

(2) when the prepositional object is either absent or is one of the relatives *that*, *than*, *as*, which cannot carry a preposition before them:—

He's the kind of man I don't care *for*.

This is such a book *as* I was looking *for* yesterday.

§393. The above practice shows that a preposition may be more closely attached to the verb than to its own object, in fact almost as closely attached to the verb as is the adverb in a compound verb. Since the same word may, in English, often be used as both

adverb and preposition, there exist many combinations of verb plus preposition (or adverb), but the use of the verb plus preposition is distinguished from that of the verb plus adverb in two ways:—

(a) by the preposition being inseparable from the verb while the adverb is separable by a short object:—

He *ran through* (prep.) the letter.

He *ran* his enemy *through* (adv.) with his sword.

(b) by the two kinds of combination meaning something different from each other:—

I *saw* him *through* (adv.)

which means that 'I accompanied him safely through' some difficulty, while

I *saw through* (prep.) him.

means 'I penetrated the deception he was trying to practise'.

Sometimes, however, the meanings of the two combinations are much the same, e.g., the following sentences mean the same thing:—

The committee *hurried through* (prep.) the business.

The committee *hurried* the business *through* (adv.).

(§§392-393). *Errors in the Order of Preposition and Object*

Error 557. *Though little more than of middle stature, Akbar towered in personality above all his contemporaries.*

Here the proper object of the preposition *of* has not been ascertained. It is not *middle stature* but *little more*, and the *of* should precede that:—*Though of little more than middle stature, etc.*

Error 558. *The Association should work all round the year.*

Words usable as either prepositions or adverbs may cause confusion in their use, and *round* is one of these. *All*



*round*, the preposition, has the physical meaning 'completely encircling'; what is wanted above is the adverb *round*, with the metaphorical meaning 'in circuit':—*all the year round*.

Error 559. The queen tried to deceive Imogen, but Imogen *saw her through*.

Evidently, not the verb plus adverb, meaning 'helped her through her difficulties', is required, but the verb plus preposition, *saw through her*, meaning 'penetrated her designs'.

### *Position of Clauses*

§394. Clauses, in their position, are controlled by the same laws as the parts of speech for which they stand.

(1) Noun Clauses used as subjects may precede the main verb:—

*Whether he will come* is not certain.

but this is felt to be old-fashioned, and the construction with formal *it* is now used, in which the noun clause follows the main clause:—

*It* is not certain *whether he will come*.

Noun clauses used as objects follow the main verb:—

I feared (main vb.) *that he was not honest*.

§395. (2) Adjective Clauses usually follow immediately upon the word they qualify:—

*A man who can be trusted* is preferable to *one who is merely clever*.

but a long adjectival clause should not separate a subject-noun from its verb, e.g. (Daily Mail):—

Meanwhile Chicago is enjoying uproariously a 'wet' curtain-raiser before the great Conventions, at which candidates for the forthcoming Presidential elections will be chosen, open.

in which the adjective clause in italics should have come after the verb *open*.

§396. (3) Adverb Clauses either precede or follow the main clause, according as convenience dictates, i.e., they precede for emphasis or if their contents must be known first to explain the main clause, but follow if the contents of the main clause need to be known first:—

*As soon as you've finished your letter*, do come and help me with mine.

Don't tell me you've done it, *because I shan't believe you*.

An adverb clause may be placed, in literary English, between a subject-noun and its verb, but only if the noun is strongly stressed:—

My uncle, *though he could be severe if he liked*, was the kindest of men.

(§§394-396). *Errors in the Position of Clauses*

(§396).

The variability of adverb clauses in their position makes them most subject to error.

Error 560. *As those in Upper India and Bengal are*, our women are not fettered by the strict purdah system.

The comparison clause in italics cannot be understood till one has read the main clause. The comparison clause should, then, follow the main:—*Our women are not fettered . . . system as those in Upper India and Bengal are*.

Error 561. I, *since I had not heard from him for a long time*, decided to go and pay him a visit.

This is a favourite type of error with Indian students, viz., of separating a weak-stressed pronoun-subject from



its verb by a long clause, whether adjectival or adverbial. The subject, of course, should stand next its verb (*I decided*) and the adverb clause can go either first, before the *I*, or last, after *visit*.

## EXERCISES ON CHAPTER XV

## WORD-ORDER

After reading again the paragraphs indicated below, correct errors in Word-Order in the sentences given under each paragraph:—

§382.

*Subject and Verbal Predicate, Statements, Negative Modifier.*

1. Scarcely it was 8 o'clock when the doors opened for admittance.
2. To no one he will lend money.
3. No sooner this bird flies back to the jungle than it gives out its own wild note.
4. In no other part of this planet they found such a state of society.
5. Never in his life he has done anything unworthy of a son of India.
6. In no department of civic life students are permitted to play the principal part.
7. Not only they are overburdened but also they are scantily fed.
8. No sooner there is heavy rain than the local train service is dislocated.
9. Not only the continuity of instruction is lost by long holidays but the students gradually forget all they learnt.

§382.

*Subject and Verbal Predicate. Statements without Object.*

As well we might protest against an increase in the revenue.

So often and so clearly the voice of patriots has been raised against this practice.

Especially for agricultural improvement he has done much for which he will be remembered.

So peculiar the situation is that all parties are doubtful how to proceed.

§384.

*Questions.*

If the grave cannot spare them from the calumny of the living, what help there is?

'What they could be carrying?' said the King.

Why not these Powers sounded Italy before the war?

(§§387-388).

*Attributive Adjuncts. Adjectives.*

I saw a worth seeing view of the sea.

They damage us by endangering our trade and similar other methods.

Truly the great whole earth is one family.

I never met before a such person.

I want to impress upon you not to be satisfied with simply a theoretical belief.

Have you read his brilliant article in the Quarterly Review last?

She took it up with her both hands.

He is no less an enterprising gentleman than Mr. R.

The child's physique depends upon that of its both the parents.

*Nouns in Prepositional Adjuncts.*

He was judicially blind as to who the person was before him.

In modern times Kafir may be cited as the best illustration of the illiterate Hindu Sufis.

(§§389-390).

*Adverb Adjuncts.*

Time will call into existence many a Tata, only if you have patience.



Then there is the further consideration that loyalty like a shirt or coat cannot be made to order.

## TEST PAPERS 15—(WORD-ORDER)

## 15 A

(1) What do you understand by Inverted Order? Make a list of conditions under which Inverted Order of Subject and Predicate is required in an English sentence.

(2) Correct any errors of word-order in the following sentences, and give a reason for each of your corrections:—

1. He was neither a bigot nor did he allow himself to be led away by his priests.

2. Hamlet failed as a reformer, since only in the end he brought his uncle to punishment.

3. Much less there should be any feeling of antagonism between the two communities.

4. Not till recently we used to find them.

5. No sooner his back is turned than they give him abuse.

6. Not unless the individual citizen is imbued with the constitutional spirit, it is possible to work any constitutional form of government satisfactorily.

7. These arguments are not strong enough to warrant the conclusion, nor they have the power to carry conviction.

8. No longer the members of different castes confine themselves to ancestral occupations.

9. Neither to the Government nor to the people, the Advisory Council will prove of any help.

10. Never before in the annals of British administration in India so momentous a scheme of reform was launched into existence.

11. Not only his long experience in the diplomatic service will stand him in good stead, but also his personal qualities of courage and decision.

12. Hardly there is a gathering in the town where a tawaif is not called for.

13. A bear dance could not amuse the public more nor any other form of unrestrained mimicry could disgust them so much.

## 15 B

(3) Give the general rule for the position of an adverb which is an adjunct to an adjective or adverb, and, in accordance with the rule given, correct any mistakes in the order of adverbs in the following sentences:—

1. All observe caste so far as marriage at least is concerned.

2. The long staple cotton required for the higher counts of yarn is not still grown in India.

3. The number of girls receiving secondary education is yet too small to be taken into account.

4. He is likely to make almost an ideal Secretary of State.

5. One sees that social reform is not still well understood in its aim.

6. Since at least the time of his grandfather, charity has run in the blood of the family.

7. There must be sacrifice of cherished prejudices, sacrifice of even parts of tradition.

8. Agriculture is the chief support nearly of the whole of the population.

9. Social reformers are carrying on partly an unsuccessful struggle.

10. If an impetus for promoting social reform should at all emanate from any part of India, it should be from Bombay.

11. He said it was common nearly to all the branches of the Aryan race.

12. It was recently possible to get a worthy president on only condition that he had wider powers.

13. Though a layman is somewhat frightened at the start, he will gradually find that the book is only meant for him.



(4) Correct errors in the order of adverbials in the following sentences. In *each* case add a note naming the kind of adverbial in the sentence and explaining your correction:—

1. We often have smiled at the rough finish of an old cathedral.
2. He was tired of Pyecraft and somehow wanted to get rid of him.
3. Picketing, reminds the Rev. N. M., through the Spectator, his countrymen, is lawful in England.
4. Not a single one of the offending officers has been punished. It has been even stated that one of them has been promoted.
5. Nobody regards the present evil condition of widows as more deplorable than myself.
6. It is a gem of subtle humour that gives lustre to nearly all the plays of Shakespeare more than anything else.
7. We know better of their interests than they themselves do.
8. There will be hardly really any serious general fear on this ground.
9. It is useless if it be not the ground on which opposition is based.
10. The relation of cause and effect does not evidently lie on the surface.
11. The latest device is to refuse not only to live upon prison diet but to starve themselves out.
12. These people talk glibly but do not apparently understand the alphabet of politics.

## 15 C

(5) What happens to the word-order in a question when it is made subordinate to a main clause? In agreement with your answer, make any necessary changes in the following sentences:—

1. They are wondering why is the Government taking such drastic steps.
2. It is hard to know what do they gain by censuring the dead.

3. When one begins to think what subject should one choose for an essay one never begins.

4. What is Hinduism it is very difficult to define.

5. There are those who cannot understand what was Dadaism.

6. I know what's love; I've read English fiction.

7. They do not pause to consider what is the loss to humanity.

8. What are these differences of opinion is not known.

9. We must discover how does this happen.

(6) Correct any errors in the position of prepositions in the following sentences, and in *each* case explain your correction:—

1. He can easily find what sort of views and likings of the man are.

2. They are incapable of any better destiny than their masters wished them for.

(7) Make any necessary re-arrangements in the position of clauses or phrases in the following:—

1. He at the same time does not wish that Art should be merely imitative.

2. No impression than that the authorities are siding with one community against another can be more mischievous.

3. A large number of Desh Sevikas joined the procession who were protected by a cordon.

4. He being informed of the fact this morning went to the City Police Station to offer himself for arrest.

5. There is a drawingroom which presents a picturesque view, decorated with pictures on the walls wherein guests are received, the furniture of which is very neatly arranged, consisting of some chairs, two tables and some couches not of a very high quality.



## CHAPTER XVI

## MEANING OF WORDS AND PHRASES

§397. The material of this chapter lies outside the purview of Grammar proper, which concerns itself with the forms and uses of words rather than with their meaning, but, as we have seen in other chapters, the meaning of a word controls its use, and, in the study of a language, grammar and dictionary have to be used together.

We are, therefore, going to deal with what may be called border-line cases, i.e., such uses of words and phrases as are not easily found in an ordinary dictionary, although these uses depend on meanings. Such a special kind of dictionary as Fowler's *Modern English Usage* deals, in a very skilful and lively manner, with a multitude of these difficulties, and this book should be known to every student of English. Fowler, however, wrote for English people, while we shall have to deal with difficulties of use and meaning such as are felt specially by Indian students, who approach English differently.

§398. The problem for an Indian student learning English is to learn to think in English, i.e., not to think in the vernacular and then translate literally the vernacular word or phrase into the first or commonest English parallel but, when speaking or writing English, to drop his vernacular habits of words, constructions, word- or sentence-stress, intonation, imagery, etc., and take up and learn, instead, English habits. This applies equally, of course, to

the English student learning another language than his own, and is just as difficult for him—and as necessary—as for the Indian student. Only by this method can a foreign language be truly learnt and appropriated by anyone. Every cultivated language has behind it a long history during which the interplay of innumerable minds and circumstances has formed an instrument of expression by speech, and this instrument will not allow itself to be altered nor interfered with. It must be accepted as it is, and its uses learnt.

Learning one's own language in childhood is like learning to play one's first instrument, say a sithar. But learning a second language is like learning a second instrument, say a piano, after becoming proficient with the sithar, i.e., one must put aside all the touch- and melody-habits necessary for the sithar and appropriate a new set of habits necessary for the piano. The only sure resemblance between language and language, as between sithar and piano, is a system of notes (which, however, may not be the same in detail for both), i.e., parts of grammar, and an ear for music in the performer, i.e., language ability.

§399. We shall take first particular kinds of difficulties and mistakes in single Words, and then in Phrases. As the chapter proceeds, it will be seen that the mistakes are graded according to the amount of interference by thinking in the vernacular. That is, the kinds of difficulties taken first are such as a student who knows less English may make; they show much translation or adaptation from the vernacular. Then come others made by students who know more English until, finally, the difficulty is no longer due to translating mentally from the vernacular but to



not understanding the form or use of the English word or phrase itself.

### Words.

§400. Mistakes with English words show much more interference from thinking in the vernacular than do mistakes with English phrases, which always show at least some grip of English.

We take first two groups of errors—labelled Vernacularisms and Synonyms—which show definite and often strong vernacular interference, and then five other groups—labelled Malaprops, Inverted Usage, Poeticisms, Pompositives and Vulgarisms—which show rather an incomplete grasp of English than interference from the vernacular.

#### A. VERNACULARISMS.

§401. In such errors as the following the writer evidently had in mind a certain vernacular word which he would have used in the context, and he has replaced it by an English word which, in his necessarily imperfect experience of English, generally does stand for that vernacular word. That is, he has translated his vernacular word by the commonest English equivalent. The error lies in the English equivalent, which he has chosen, not fitting the context according to English usage.

Error 562. He had also formed a *strong* friendship with a country girl.

A Marathi-speaking student, writing this, has probably in his mind *ghatt*, which might in other contexts be rightly represented by the English *strong*. But in English we speak of a *close friendship*. Note that, in other cases, *strong*, used wrongly in translation of some vernacular

word, should be replaced perhaps by some other English word, not *close*, according to English usage.

Error 563. Wanted, an *aged* highly educated Brahmin girl, to marry a foreign-returned graduate.

The error in *foreign-returned* is dealt with in Chapter XII. Here we have to do with *aged*, which means 'very old', i.e. over 70 at least! The writer is perhaps thinking of *vayat* or *vayatit*. In English we should say *adult*.

Error 564. I am leaving my *service*.

This error with *service* is very common. In the sense of 'employment' *service* has a very narrow meaning in English, either work under a great organisation like the State or the Church as an official or else in a private house as a servant. In any case, *service* is not used for the position itself, but for the fact of employment (*in the service of the State, in domestic service*). Use *post* or *position*.

Error 565. I was about to sit down when he said: 'Stand up, you are a prisoner'. I *kept* standing.

*Keep* is constantly wrongly used. Sometimes the right English word would be *put*, sometimes—as here—*remained*, sometimes another word. It depends on the context. Several vernacular words are translated by *keep*. Here perhaps *rahila* was in the writer's mind.

Error 566. Do not rich Swadeshi agitators *keep* English furniture in their houses?

Here *put* is required, the writer thinking of *thevane*, perhaps. It is the placing of the furniture in the house, not the retaining (keeping) of it, which is the question.

Error 567. For days he has been *after* me to give a donation.

Again a common error. It is true that 'to be after a person' exists in English in the sense of 'pursue', but it applies to the pursuit of a law-breaker. Perhaps the vernacular in mind is *tyachya pathis lagane*. The English equivalent is *at me*.



## B. SYNONYMS.

§402. When the student progresses a little further in his English so that he tries to think in English, he is faced with the difficulty of pairs of words that mean very nearly the same thing, such as *grief*, *sorrow*, *pain*, *misery*. These are called Synonyms, but each of a pair (or group) of synonyms cannot, obviously, mean exactly the same as the other (or another) or else one would die, for language is economical and ultimately keeps only one word to mean one thing or one aspect of that thing. Thus the Old English word for the sky was the ancestor of our word *heaven*, but when the word *sky* was borrowed from the Danes and applied to the material atmosphere overhead, *heaven* lost that meaning (we see it still in the plural *the heavens declare the glory of God* in the 1611 translation of the Bible) and was applied only to the spiritual realm of God.

Thus, usage plays the main part in settling the exact shade of meaning of a word, and the meaning of each of a pair of synonyms is distinct from the other and is governed by the usage of the best writers or the great majority of good speakers.

The vernacular interferes here because the vernacular word to which the Indian writer is accustomed may have two or more English equivalents which are synonymous or nearly so, and he has not grasped the distinction between the uses of the equivalents. We distinguish here errors with synonymous nouns, adjectives, verbs and adverbs, in that order.

### (a) Nouns.

Error 568. I was very much pleased with the *scenery* of the sky around.

*Scenery* applies to the earth and its artistic features, not to the sky. *Appearance* is required.

Error 569. The delegates should be supplied with *written authority* of their due election.

*Written authority* is given in order to empower someone to do something in the future. Here *notice* of an election is meant, and *due* should stand before *notice*.

Error 570. There is *scope* for a greater number of people to become gentlemen.

*Scope* means space for activity, not space in position, which is *room*, and should be used here.

Error 571. Tennyson embodies in it his favourite *view*, the sacredness of the marriage bond.

The 'sacredness of the marriage bond' cannot be a 'view', but it may be a *dogma*, if it is a doctrine laid down as indisputable, or a *belief*, if the holder of it allows others liberty to accept it or not.

(b) *Adjectives*.

Error 572. It seems either the official mind is too ignorant or too sensitive to prestige and therefore too *pretentious* or . . . .

The writer's love of long Latin words has here rather tripped him up. One can be *pretentious* in personal dress or in the appointments of one's house or motor, i.e. 'showy' without reality. In spirit, as here, one may be only *proud*.

Error 573. No social reformer can be *worth* his work who ignores the past.

A person can be *worth* the rewards of his work, i.e. his salary, but he must be *equal* to his work.

Error 574. Examination; what a *bulky* word!

The sound of the word *bulky* seems to be attractive, as suggesting great size and weight. *Bulky*, however, applies to inanimate matter. *Big* is the right word, or else *portentous*, if one wants more sound along with the sense.

Error 575. If a man commits theft he is *capable* of being arrested.



*Capable* suggests fitness for activity, not a passive being acted upon, i.e. arrested. *Likely to be arrested* is meant.

Error 576. We are extremely glad with the sympathetic speech of His Excellency.

*Glad* takes *of*, not *with*, but *glad of* suggests a previous dissatisfaction which was allayed by the speech. The writer probably meant *pleased with*, which does not require a previous dissatisfied state.

(c) *Verbs*.

Error 577. The avaricious man *teases* his debtors.

There are several degrees in torture, and among the mildest is 'teasing', which applies to petty and continuous irritation like offering a child a chocolate and then taking it away. An avaricious man goes further and either *worries* or *torments* his debtors, the former being commoner.

Error 578. She was *seeing* herself in the glass.

This is really an error in Aspect (see Chapter VI), for 'seeing' is the act of completed vision. But the girl was not satisfied with a moment's sight (*She saw herself*, etc.) but went on looking. Hence *looking at herself*.

(d) *Adverbs*.

Error 579. The great and terrible war which has *nowadays* broken out in Europe.

*Nowadays* contrasts the present with the past or some period of it. No such contrast is here meant, therefore simply *now*.

C. MALAPROPS.

§403. Richard Brinsley Sheridan's comedy *The Rivals*, first acted in 1775, contains a character Mrs. Malaprop who has given a name to a kind of error common enough even among English people. Her name—from French *mal à propos*, 'ill-suited'—describes this peculiarity of her speech, which is to confuse two words somewhat similar in sound and either to use

one word for the other or to mix the two by using one part of one and another of the other. This confusion may produce a wrong beginning to the word she uses :—

Long ago I laid my positive *conjunction* (*injunction*) on her.

No *caparisons* (*comparisons*), if you please. *Caparisons* don't become a young woman.

or a wrong middle :—

Don't attempt to *extirpate* (*extricate*) yourself from this matter !

or a wrong ending :—

I would by no means wish a daughter of mine to be a progeny (*prodigy*) of learning.

I have *interceded* (*intercepted*) another letter from the fellow.

She's as headstrong as an *allegory* (*alligator*) on the banks of the Nile.

or may substitute a whole word for another through mispronunciation :—

I hope you will represent her to the Captain as an object not altogether *illegible* (*eligible*).

The fun, of course, lies in her proud unconsciousness of being anything but clever and learned, and the finest gems from her come when the 'interceded' letter from Sir Anthony Absolute is read and found to comment on her 'ridiculous vanity which makes her dress up her coarse features, and deck her dull chat with hard words which she don't understand.' 'There, Sir!' bursts out Mrs. Malaprop, 'an attack upon my language! what do you think of that?—an aspersion upon my parts of speech! was ever such a brute! save if I *reprehend* (*apprehend*) anything in the world, it is the use of my *oracular* (*vernacular*) tongue, and a nice *derangement of epitaphs* (*arrangement of epithets*).'



§404. 'Derangements' of these various kinds are instanced by the following:—

(a) *Initial*.

Error 580. Yes, they were jealous (zealous) for the rights of their brethren.

Error 581. He *consigns* (assigns) a proper place to men in society.

Error 582. It has *become* (come) to be recognised amongst us that . . . .

(b) *Medial*.

Error 583. It must be remembered that India is the land of their *adaptation* (adoption).

Error 584. Foreign travel, against which fanaticism was *arranging* (arraying) itself till very late.

(c) *Final*.

Error 585. I cannot *withhold* (withstand) the temptation of quoting . . . .

Error 586. Ruskin was *imbibed* (imbued) from childhood with Bible knowledge.

Error 587. The reasons which he put *forth* (forward) I cannot recollect.

Error 588. This book is a *masterful* (masterly) survey of the conditions now existing in Persia.

D. INVERTED USAGE.

§405. By this term is meant a misuse of words consisting in applying them to the subject or person when they really apply to the object or thing, and *vice versa*, so that the sentence gives a topsy-turvy effect. The two examples of errors given will sufficiently illustrate this:—

Error 589. Tennyson was a *pictorial* poet.

*Pictorial* means 'containing pictures' which, obviously, does not apply to Tennyson but to his poetry. Correction is only possible by completely altering the sentence, e.g.:—

*Tennyson's poetry was pictorial, or Tennyson filled his poetry with pictures.*

Error 590. If a man has no great attraction for worldly pleasures, he can be happy on small means.

It is not the man who has an attraction for worldly pleasures, but—the other way round—the pleasures which have an attraction for him. The simplest correction is to alter the verb, i.e.:—*If a man finds no great attraction in worldly pleasures, etc.*

#### E. POETICISMS.

§406. This term explains itself, viz., the use in ordinary speech of words or phrases found only in poetry, which loves old expressions now out of date in prose or rich words unsuited to ordinary speech or bright new meanings for common words not yet generally understood in such new senses.

Error 591. Such is the story told by one friend, and there is *nothing* to disbelieve him.

The writer means *there is no reason to disbelieve him*, but the use of *nothing* = 'no reason' is long obsolete in English. Milton has it in the words of Manoa in *Samson Agonistes*:—

Nothing is here for tears, nothing to wail  
Or knock the breast

upon the death of his son Samson, but nowadays only poetry may use the expression.

#### F. POMPOSITIES.

§407. Again a transparent term, viz., the use of grand words where plain ones only are in place.

Error 592. The dire disease of smallpox is *assuming* rather a serious turn in Delhi.

A disease may *take a turn*, not *assume* it. This error of pomposity is common in newspaper reports; it is a false attempt to magnify events in order to make them more exciting or to dignify the expression.



## G. VULGARISMS AND SLANG.

§408. We have now descended to the bottom of the scale and are among writers who use any word of colloquial speech, the commoner the better for them.

Error 593. I have got a *job* as a teacher at the  
—school.

A *job* properly means an occasional or special piece of manual work. So we have *jobbing* gardeners in England, for instance, who come occasionally and attend to private gardens. In colloquial English, *job* is applied to regular employment of any kind, including mental, as above, but the use is rather vulgar.

Error 594. Come to my *place* at ten to-morrow morning.

*Place* for *house* is another example of a colloquialism which is better avoided.

### *Phrases*

§409. Errors with phrases are not due to vernacular interference but to insufficient command of the English. Either the form of the phrase, which is always a fixed one, has not been properly seized, or else, if the proper form has been seized, its context and application, which is also very definite and often narrow, are not properly understood.

Here we distinguish three kinds of phrases—word-groups not containing a word-picture (Phrase Idioms), word-groups containing a word-picture (Metaphors), or group-names (Titles).

## H. PHRASE-IDIOMS.

§410. In every language are found certain combinations of words, created by known writers or unknown individuals, which are so happy and effective

that they are seized upon by others and become common property in a fixed form and with fixed connexions. It is this fixity of form and, still more, of connexions of thought or circumstance which is so hard to learn and in which mistakes occur.

§411. A phrase-idiom may be right in form and yet wrongly used, and these are the first errors to be examined :—

1. *Correct Form—Wrong Connexion*

Error 595. Thanks to his strong mind and utter *courage of his convictions*, he manages . . . .

The writer thinks that *courage of his convictions* (meaning 'belief in his own ideas') is a phrase which can be used freely as a unit in any sentence. But that is not so. It is a part of a larger fixed phrase—*He has* (or *had* or *should have*) *the courage of his convictions*, meaning 'he is prepared to support his convictions by suitable action', and must be used only in that form and with that meaning.

Error 596. His rebuke has *fallen flat* upon the rank and file.

Statements of any kind may *fall flat*, in the sense that they fail of the expected effect, but they cannot *fall upon* anyone. One might say, perhaps, in this instance, that *the rebuke has fallen flat with the rank and file*.

Error 597. The sun-dried bureaucrat, who has not been able to *see eye to eye* the ambitions of young India.

One *sees eye to eye with* a person, i.e. agrees with his point of view. The above misunderstanding of the phrase, even though its form is correct, is obvious.

Error 598. He *gave vent* to his ideas in many fine poems.

*To give vent to* can only be used of expressions of wrath or displeasure. Here one should use, instead, *gave expression to*



Error 599. We know from history that *at the time of* Tennyson science was advancing rapidly.

*At the time of* is applicable only to a very limited extent of time, i.e. event, not to a poet's life. Correct would be *in the days of*, etc.

## 2. Incorrect Form.

§412. More often, the form of the phrase is got wrong, the connexion being sometimes also wrong, but sometimes right. The whole phrase may be muddled, or else only one word go wrong, so a distinction is here drawn between the whole phrase wrong and one word wrong:—

### (a) Whole Phrase Wrong.

Error 600. The leaders had *the courage of conviction* and carried out in practice what they preached on the platform.

As the last part of the sentence shows, the writer was well aware of the meaning and connexion of the phrase *the courage of their convictions*, but he did not sufficiently know the phrase.

Error 601. *What is the earthly use of the Colonial Office?*

This sounds like a pointed question, but, according to its form, the Colonial Office might have a heavenly—or other—use even if it had not an earthly one. The right form of the phrase *Of what earthly use is*, etc., leaves no room for further questions or speculations about a possible use elsewhere, for it is an exclamation of anger or disappointment.

Error 602. *I bear God my witness* that I have never seen . . . .

The correct form of the phrase is *I bear witness before God*, the Deity being the judge.

(b) *Single Word Wrong.*

These, again, may be arranged as errors in the noun or the verb or the adverb of the phrase, and are placed in that order in the errors given, but without sub-division.

Error 603. Almost all the witnesses *corroborated* the *trend* of events leading to the disturbance of April 23.

Corroboration can only be of a statement in words, not of a *trend*. Hence, the noun *trend* must be altered to something like *description*.

Error 604. Before he was ten he *attempted* his hand at poetry.

Here the verb is wrong. One can only *try* one's hand at something.

Error 605. If we *throw* our eyes around, we notice that . . . .

Again, the verb. The eyes are *cast* around, not thrown.

Error 606. He *cuts* a joke.

A joke is *cracked*, not cut. Verb again.

Error 607. Before *joining* Oxford he did not get any school education.

Once more the verb. The verbs for attending a University are many. In the old days a student 'was entered at' Oxford or Cambridge, i.e. his name was entered in the books of a college of either University. Nowadays he 'enters' other Universities, but still at Oxford and Cambridge they speak of *going up to* these Universities when one becomes a student at either, and of *going down from* them when one leaves.

Error 608. We must not speak evil *behind* them.

This is an adverbial error. The true phrase with 'speaking evil' is *behind their backs*.

Error 609. The public has been fooled *for long*.

Again adverbial. *For long* only goes with a negative verb (e.g.: *I will stay with you but not for long*). With positive reference, the phrase is *for a long time*.



## J. METAPHORS.

§413. Nothing is more characteristic of a language than the number and kind of picture-phrases in it. These phrases containing a picture have their origin in the spirit of Poetry, whether in the minds of poets—whose poems are, normally, full of pictures containing or enforcing the experience which the poem expresses—or in common speech, being coined in a moment of excitement by an unknown individual when his experience was seen in picture-form.

Hence, as the characteristics of poetical or excited language vary from country to country, often very widely, we must expect the metaphors of one language to be generally untranslatable literally into another language. Metaphors are the most fixed of phrases, both in form and content, and must be kept and used so.

Then, further, since a metaphor is created amid surroundings which form a unit and hang together, the metaphor itself should present a unified picture, containing elements which are found together in nature, being seen and felt together.

§414. In general, the following are felt to be the characteristics of a good metaphorical phrase in English:—

(a) it conveys a single unified picture to the mind:

(b) it conveys at the same time a powerful and pointed meaning easily or commonly associated with the picture.

Obviously, then, metaphors should be carefully handled so as to preserve a unity of picture to the mind and to convey a meaning directly and simply associated with the picture in the metaphor. Con-

versely, a bad use of metaphors arises from either putting two metaphors together which have no unity of picture between them (Mixed Metaphors), or making metaphors which have no plain and direct association of ideas with the picture.

§415. We distinguish here between metaphors which have been some time in use in the language and are recognized as current coin (Accepted Metaphors) and metaphors which are coined on the spot by the writer and are therefore strange at first sight (Nonce-Metaphors).

§416. (1) *Accepted Metaphors.*

These are subject to any of three possible errors. Either (a) the set form of words may be got wrong (Distorted Form); or (b) the set form of words may be correct but may be used in a false connexion (Correct Form Misapplied); or (c) two or more metaphors may be used together whose pictures do not naturally belong together (Mixed Metaphors).

§417. (a) *Distorted Form.*

Error 610. *This ground was not built in a day.*

The original metaphor is *Rome was not built in a day*, and must be retained intact, meaning that a great task is not to be accomplished in a brief time. The substitution of *ground* is, in any case, absurd, since a 'ground' is not 'built'.

Error 611. *I hold that nature fixes the stamp of one's land over one's forehead.*

The true metaphor says that a person or thing *bears* the *stamp* of its origin *on his* (or *its*) *forehead*. There is no 'fixing' concerned, and *over* is a vernacularism.

Error 612. *Becky Sharp attempts to set her cap upon every young gentleman she comes across.*



A woman who sets out obviously to capture a man for her husband is said to *set her cap* at him.

Error 613. Nowadays education is *spreading by leaps and bounds*.

Education may *advance by leaps and bounds*, as suggested by the picture of an animal moving, but what sort of animal can *spread* by leaps and bounds?

Error 614. Suppose in one of the issues a *printer's devil* is detected, . . .

A *printer's devil* is a boy-assistant in a printing press. The writer means a *printer's error*.

Error 615. A single religious riot *turns back the hand of India's progress*.

The true metaphor is *puts back the clock of*.

#### §418. (b) *Correct Form Misapplied*.

Error 616. His success will deepen the *footprints* which Lord Curzon has had time enough to trace lightly *on the sands of time*.

The writer has heard of or knows Longfellow's *Psalm of Life* with its *footprints on the sands of time* which, in the poem, may be made by any traveller across life's desert and may encourage some forlorn and shipwrecked brother who sees them to take heart again, and there the image is in place and immediately clear in meaning. But what is the meaning of this 'deepening' and 'tracing' of them? Obviously, it is a misapplication, for only a tracker or detective 'traces' footprints, and nobody would trouble to 'deepen' them.

Error 617. Poetry is clearly *the head and front of literature*.

Again a literary metaphor. But the historical association of the metaphor *the head and front of* is with rebellion and can only be used with such a condition, meaning the 'leading spirit of disturbance'.

Error 618. To call into requisition the military to put down outrages attributed to a few hare-brained

youngsters would be *straining at a gnat* by means of musketry.

The true phrase goes *he strains at a gnat and swallows a camel*, suggesting difficulty in accepting a small matter while at the same time accepting easily a big one. The writer evidently only half understands the phrase, and quite misapplies it with musketry, thus heading straight for a mixed metaphor. The metaphor he really wanted, to emphasize the idea of using superfluous force, is *to crack a nut with a sledgehammer*.

#### §419. (c) *Mixed Metaphors.*

There are people, either possessed of a lively fancy and fond of thinking and talking in pictures or else dull in imagination but determined to make up for that by highly colouring their speech, who are not too careful that their metaphor-pictures, taken all together, make up a single picture. The result is that the mind of the listener, carried suddenly from one picture to another quite different in circumstances and details, gets confused, and he laughs. The laughter is not *with* the speaker but *at* his mixed pictures.

A great artist in words may, of course, succeed with a mixed metaphor. So Shakespeare makes Hamlet say:—

Whether 'tis nobler in the mind to suffer  
The slings and arrows of outrageous fortune,  
Or to take arms against a sea of troubles.  
And, by opposing, end them?

and, somehow, we do not laugh at the picture of *taking arms* against a *sea*, but perhaps this is because both phrases *to take arms* and *a sea of troubles* are such old accepted metaphors that the picture-element has nearly faded out of them.

One of the most famous creators of mixed metaphors



in modern times was Sir Boyle Roche, and to him is attributed the following magnificent specimen:—

Gentlemen, *I smell a rat! I see it brewing in the distance! By the grace of God I shall nip it in the bud!*

By the side of that, other efforts look pale, but here are two:—

Error 619. The moment religious instruction is sought to be given in schools, *the apple of discord will be sown.*

The apple of discord was the apple given, in the Greek myth, by Paris to Aphrodite as the most beautiful of the goddesses, which decision of his inflamed the competing goddesses Hera and Athene with anger and caused discord in Olympus. But how can an *apple* be *sown*?

Error 620. Dr. Bhandarkar would have things called by their proper names and *would not mince calling a spade a spade.*

Here two metaphorical expressions are hopelessly entangled, viz: *he does not mince words*, meaning 'he does not over-refine his language', and *he calls a spade a spade*, meaning 'he uses downright language'. They mean much the same thing, but should lead separate lives.

#### §420. (2) *Nonce-Metaphors.*

If new metaphors are created, they should—like the accepted ones—call up immediate clear images which carry the meaning intended. Style is also a consideration, as always in speech. New metaphors may fail through (a) calling up no satisfactory picture and therefore being meaningless, (b) being mixed, even if a picture is suggested, (c) being vulgar or slangy.

(a) *Meaningless.*

Error 621. *Or let the elephants meet their own death.* This may be a translation or adaptation from some

vernacular metaphor originally quite clear and meaningful. In English it carries no picture or meaning.

Error 622. All that was needed was *to wind the martial key*.

Such a metaphor does not exist in English. We have an old phrase of hunting—*to wind the horn*—where wind means 'to blow', but it had only a literal meaning. In any case, one cannot *wind a key*, not even a musical key.

(b) *Mixed*.

Error 623. We should *brush up our eyes*, and look at the gulf yawning before us.

It is certainly a new kind of eye which can be brushed up. Surely the old metaphor *to open the eyes* would be good enough.

Error 624. A potent factor in *swelling up anti-spiritual suggestions*.

The metaphor is imperfect because *suggestions* offer no picture, and it is mixed because they cannot be *swelled up*.

(c) *Vulgar*.

Error 625. A *fertile phrenology safe*.

It is vulgar, because it is lowering to human dignity, to compare a man's head with a safe, and a *phrenology safe* is very nearly nonsense. Finally, how can a *safe* be *fertile*? That is mixture on the top of vulgarity.

Error 626. Iachimo has at last succeeded in *pumping out of the lips* of the truest and fondest husband alive the damaging statement that . . .

Again, to compare the extracting of words from a man with pumping water from a well is undignified and vulgar. *Extracting from the truest husband alive*, etc., would be enough, and the lips are also superfluous.

## K. TITLES.

§421. Various kinds of errors can be made with English titles through lack of exact knowledge of the way they are used by English people. Here a general



statement will not be attempted but only guidance given with regard to titles which are frequently mis-used by Indian students.

§422. First, we must distinguish between real titles and courtesy titles. Real titles are such as Earl, Marquis, Viscountess, Archbishop, Knight, etc. These represent personal rank or office. Courtesy titles have not been granted, as have real titles, by the king, who is the fountain of all honour. Typical of these are Mr. (mister) and Mrs. (missis) for untitled folk, Sir for knights and baronets, Lord for viscounts, marquises, earls, and dukes, Lady for all ladies of rank by inheritance or marriage, Rev. (reverend) for ecclesiastics, Dr. (doctor) for qualified physicians and certain graduates of other university faculties, the Rt. Hon. (the Right Honourable) for politicians who hold or have held certain offices of state, the Hon. (the Honourable) for younger sons of peers, His or Your Grace for bishops and archbishops.

There are also titles of military, naval and academic rank—General, Admiral, Commander, Lieutenant, Chancellor, Professor—which, as regards usage, stand halfway between real and courtesy titles.

§423. Mistakes in usage here are due partly to confusing the two kinds of titles and using a style for the one which is only proper to the other.

Thus, barons, marquises, viscounts, earls and dukes are all lords temporal and have the right to the courtesy title Lord. But their names and styles are given variously, according as the real or courtesy title is used. In this way, Mr. John Morley, when raised to the peerage, was called either Viscount Morley of Blackburn or Lord Morley, but not Lord Blackburn. A bishop, again, may be a lord spiritual with a seat

in the House of Lords, but his only personal titles are Bishop or the Very Rev. Dr.; the title of Lord goes only with his bishopric, i.e., Dr. Ingram, who was Bishop of London and had a seat in the Lords was the Lord Bishop of London but was called personally either Bishop Ingram or the Very Reverend Dr. Ingram, according as he was spoken of or was addressed in a letter.

§424. Nowadays journalists have introduced a false practice, imitating Japanese titles which have not the corresponding courtesy title Lord (e.g., Viscount Saito). Hence, the former Viceroy of India Viscount Curzon of Kedleston began to be called Viscount Curzon by newspaper men when he should either have been given the proper title Viscount Kedleston or called simply Lord Curzon.

§425. Real titles can be used as proper nouns, with the definite article, by themselves, as referring to a particular person bearing the title concerned. Thus, Lord Curzon might have been described as *the Viscount* if his name had been previously mentioned.

§426. Courtesy titles, however, cannot be used as proper names by themselves, but must have some part of the person's name attached to them. Thus, peeresses add either the Christian name or the title name to the courtesy title Lady, i.e., if a supposed peeress's full title were Emilia, Countess Bracken-thorpe, she would be known as Lady Brackenthorpe to the world generally or as Lady Emilia under certain circumstances, but never referred to as *the Lady*. The same applies to all the other courtesy titles, with certain modifications for certain courtesy titles. These modifications are that:—

- (a) the titles Rev., the Hon. and the Rt. Hon.



require the Christian name (or initial) as well as the surname, e.g.: the Rev. James (or J.) Norland, the Hon. Algernon (or A.) Montford, the Rt. Hon. William (or W.) Montague. They cannot be used alone (i.e., the Rev. Norland, the Hon. Montford is wrong).

(b) the titles Mr., Mrs., Miss and Master, Dr., Professor require the surname at least, e.g.: Mr. Bates, Mrs. Johnson, etc. The Christian or first name may be added also, and must be added if it is necessary to distinguish the person meant from another bearing the same surname and courtesy title. Thus Dr. James Black is distinguished from Dr. Andrew Black. In a family the eldest daughter and son carry the surname alone, while the younger daughters and sons must add their Christian or first names; so a family may consist of Mr. and Mrs. White, Miss White, Miss Penelope White, Master White (Master is used only for boys under about 18), Master John White, etc. Note especially that the courtesy title with Christian or first name alone is only used by servants when speaking of children of the family, e.g.: Miss Penelope, Master John, etc.

§427. Titles of military, naval or academic rank partake of the nature of real titles in that they can be used as proper nouns with the definite article, e.g.: General Fanshawe may be described as *the General*, and the American writer Oliver Wendell Holmes names one of his books *The Professor at the Breakfast Table* from the leading character who is a professor. They partake also of the nature of courtesy titles in that they go with the family name (i.e., Fanshawe) while real titles go with the place-name (Viscount Kedleston.)

(§§421-427). *Errors with Titles.*

(§426).

Error 627. The mover being a *Sir*, and not a plain mister.

*Sir* is a courtesy title for knights and baronets and cannot stand alone. Use *knight* or *baronet*, as required.

Error 628. *Besant* belittles Gandhi's influence.

This is a newspaper vulgarity. Men (i.e. Gandhi) may be bereft of their courtesy titles by journalists and by friends of the man himself, but a lady retains her courtesy title—*Mrs. Besant*—even in the publicity of the newspapers. It is true, of course, that nowadays women students have begun to copy men in this respect and call each other *Wilson* (for *Miss Wilson*, or for *Anne* or *Anne Wilson*, as formerly) but the practice remains inside that circle and among women who have been students. Otherwise, *Wilson*—the surname alone (of a woman)—is the style of address used by the lady of a household when speaking to or of her lady's maid.

Error 629. *Motoring by Night* to greet *Miss Amy*.

This appeared in a newspaper as a heading for May 27, 1932, when Miss Amy Johnson (as she then was), the famous airwoman, flew across the Atlantic. The journalist was, unconsciously, saying what a servant of the lady might. He should have said *Miss Amy Johnson*, the surname being necessary in any case and the first name also here to distinguish her from other Miss Johnsons.

Error 630. *Dr. Bhaskerrao's Report.*

Also a newspaper heading. The person spoken of was *Dr. Bhaskerrao Patel* and should have been called so, or else *Dr. Patel* or even *Dr. B. Patel*



EXERCISES ON CHAPTER XVI  
MEANING OF WORDS AND PHRASES

A

(1) In the following sentences, wrong English words are used by literal translation from the Vernacular. Replace each such word with the right English word for the context:—

1. The very voice of the phrase World Peace attracts us.
2. Wanted, all desirous of joining service immediately, to see Manager, Standard Typewriter Co.
3. The Ticket-collector gave out, in reply, that the passenger had no ticket with him.
4. In his young age he was very much after money.
5. It is their custom to go to take a visit of their relatives.
6. The ship was beginning to drown.
7. There were ten men serving in that office.
8. The motor-machine is not oiled.
9. I go to take my meal.
10. There has been a strong rain, and all my family members have strong colds.
11. Give a pencil in the hands of a child and it will try to draw.
12. A place must also be given for a small library in each house.

B

(2) In each of the following, the wrong word out of a group of synonyms in English has been used. Supply a more suitable synonym in each case:—

1. Your mother likes to see you at once.
2. He was a staunch adherent of a constitution for the Congress.
3. He doesn't care to go to jail but is now prepared to do so since so many worthy successors are left to take up the cause.

## WRITTEN ENGLISH

4. The consolation that he offered the bereaved relatives was indeed striking.
5. Prohibition forms an important event of the present national movement.
6. The situation since then has considerably accentuated.
7. He took insult at this remark.
8. How can one emphasize this fact on the minds of Indian women?
9. The inducement to illicit production will be appreciably minimized.
10. His mind was possible of the highest development.
11. He has been leading his life happily.
12. One is sometimes led to suspect whether there is a soul of goodness in life at all.
13. Hoping to get a call from you, I remain, Yours sincerely, T. S.
14. Tennyson never went down into the obscure in his poetry.
15. Modern poets have created a great reaction against the 19th century.
16. Dictators attempt to possess all power into their own hands.
17. He asked the audience not to try for sudden change.
18. Tennyson was the only poet who did his mission as Poet Laureate successfully.
19. He was created Poet Laureate in the year 1850.
20. In political matters this writer looks at woman with indifference.
21. She does not require anyone to protect her but she requires to protect someone.
22. The Victorian woman was taken away by emotion or passion.
23. They believe he is a good man, but he does not do like one.
24. I asked him to help me but he denied to do so.
25. We wish he will be able to be among us on that day.
26. We have eschewed violence from our programme of reform.



27. The play is written in that masterly style that Shakespeare alone knew how to adopt.

28. I speak with all sincerity that had I been asked to preside I should not have consented.

29. I found the superintendent and told him, 'Why are your police treating these men?'

30. Hirji suggested if the dāl could not be made more firm.

### C

(3) The following sentences contain examples of Malaprops. Briefly explain what a Malaprop is, and replace *each* of the examples below with the proper word which was meant by the writer:—

1. Sherlock Holmes is a masterful creation of Conan Doyle.

2. The Joint Legislative Committee has produced an intermediate report on the government of New York city.

3. The worship at the gathering comprised of reciting verses from the sacred books.

4. Everyone is delightful to approach him.

5. Real political progress consists in befitting a nation to take up its own duties.

6. Has the goal been reached or even approximated?

7. It is unnecessary to affix a goal for our programme.

8. They are abusing the tax-payer's money and acting against his interests.

9. 'The Idylls of the King' is another masterwork of Tennyson's.

10. The members persisted on him speaking for them.

11. The portrait has been purchased by a gentleman who is holding it at the disposition of the committee collecting subscriptions.

12. If a man has virtuous friends he will be imbibed with their notions of right.

13. Lord Reading's Viceroyalty disabused the notion that he was no more than a lawyer.

14. Such ideas as these must be sedulously disabused.

15. Yesterday a meeting was held in the premises of a temple beneath fine trees.

16. On the 26th the pilgrims left Darchin to circumlocute Mount Kailas . . . After the circumlocution was over, the party turned towards India.

17. The charge sheet is complete with facts and figures.

18. The Bombay Medical Union has charged the Government as irresponsible in their administration of these hospitals and as not affecting the axe of retrenchment.

19. 'We have a balanced budget,' he added, 'our currency has been, apart from small seasonable fluctuations, remarkably stable.' (*The Times*).

20. Mr. Sencourt grapples very closely with the puzzle of Napoleon III's personality, tracing the varying hereditary strains in his character. (*Times Literary Supplement*).

21. I beg to produce myself for the post advertised by you.

## D

(4) Explain what is meant by Inverted Usage of a word, and correct examples of this usage in the following:—

1. It is a pity to make children absorb themselves in mere trifles.

2. We suppose that the Hindus of East Bengal are entitled to be administered according to the law.

3. The rich and the poor are equally accessible to him.

## E, F, G

(5) Errors in the following sentences may be described as either Poeticisms or Pomposities or Vulgarisms. Give *each* error the name, out of these, which is appropriate to it, and replace it with a more suitable word or expression:—

1. There is nothing for despair in this misfortune.

2. The volunteers are a brave lot.

3. In response to your advertisement I send my qualifications for the post.



4. A vein of shrieking humour runs through the whole comedy.
5. Tears dropped from her eyes.
6. We confront humour in the very opening of the book.
7. The nature of an offspring's physique often governs its mind.
8. If you confer this position on me, I shall be highly obliged.
9. Really ! Cloten in Shakespeare's *Cymbeline* takes the bun !

#### H. 1

(6) Phrase-Idioms in the following sentences are correct but are wrongly used. Say what each idiom really means, and re-write the sentences so that they mean what the writer designed to say :—

1. Finally, let me hope that my words will not fall flat upon you.
2. Anyone who has visited German Universities knows only too well what fine libraries are to be seen there.
3. Crack Shots. By Revolver. (Title of an article).
4. The women had a hand in a party of robbers.
5. My sudden appearance scattered the attendants to the right hand and to the left.
6. After reading the paper, I put out the light and took to bed in a small room.
7. If the claim of the community to special seats on the Council be entertained, the Parsis may thank themselves that a valuable right was secured to them for the mere asking.
8. Too many Christians shelve the responsibility of emancipation of their souls on the Head of their religion.
9. Ruskin was trained by his parents to take the line of a bishop.
10. There is the sublime goal where the veil of manifoldness disappears, leaving the one eternal Atma severely alone.

11. After considering *As You Like It*, we now take *Cymbeline* in hand.

12. Dr. Ghosh should therefore let well alone all malicious invective in the Press.

13. Applicants for the post should be well versed in mathematics.

14. One should be prone to adapt oneself to circumstances.

15. The boy is quite void of vices.

16. To-day the labourers are at a loss in every respect.

17. This is evidently detrimental to public health by all means.

18. The Limitation Act has been till now amended eleven times.

## H. 2

(7) The following sentences contain each a phrase-idiom wrongly given. Correct by putting in, in each case, the correct form of the idiom:—

1. He has given practical proof of his courage of conviction and earnestness in the cause.

2. We know that Lord Minto rose equal to the occasion.

3. Gentlemen were there who would never dream of putting in their presence if they knew the nature of the performance.

4. In the Victorian Age science threw a disbelief on religion.

5. The threads of policy must naturally rest largely in the Council's hands.

6. Relieve these poor unfortunates from further sufferings.

7. They are ready to pull up their noses at the very mention of compromise.

8. Let us now turn a glance in another direction.

9. This theory created a great impression on Tennyson's mind.

10. This story illustrates what recourse one takes to in extremity.



11. If I throw my naked eye in all the four directions of the city, I see nothing but suffering.
12. One cannot fail to throw a glance at this row of huge buildings.
13. When he had stayed some minutes he asked leave of his host.
14. We in Bengal have practically solved the situation.
15. I was able to solve all the questions in the English paper.
16. He took recourse to borrowing.

J. 1. a

(8) Accepted metaphors are present in the following sentences, but are wrong in form. Rewrite each sentence so as to give the metaphor its accepted form and connexion :—

1. The President declared that the membership of the Association was swelling by leaps and bounds.
2. Our great iconoclast Shaw borrows his socialism at the altar of William Morris.
3. Religious thought in the 19th century was staggered to its roots.
4. In these remarks he has hit the nail on the top.
5. He will never set the Hughli on fire.
6. The chair of the National Congress in those days was not strewn with roses.
7. A man who loathes his past and has turned over a totally new life cannot be affected by the abandoned past.
8. Mr. G. has already sounded this clarion view.
9. We can by sheer force of numbers make the whole world tremble under our shoes.
10. The child is now about to outgrow its breeches.
11. The companies were to win the head while the State was to lose the tail.
12. The father of the family should wield his authority so as to control the child without breaking the rod that holds him in check.

13. The substitution of Ajit Singh for Lajpat Rai in this book may be a printer's devil.

14. That is why, perhaps, many find it easier to pick holes in other people's pockets than stitch up those in their own.

15. The omission of English will release the Indian intellect from the pursuit of a mare's nest.

16. Legislation is licked into all manner of shapes to suit provincial and social requirements.

17. He remorselessly knocked the bottoms off what appeared to be sound arguments.

18. This measure set back the hands of progress by a clear century.

19. The rich and the poor, the lord and the peasant, fought hand in hand for the defence of their Constitution.

20. The Act fits the same cap on different heads in the hope of covering them all.

21. The dead bones of our political existence are now heaving with life.

22. Decrepit old men with a foot and a half in the grave.

23. He has his foot well in the grave.

24. The following choice epithets garbed in the liveliest and most fragrant and flowery language makes us pause awhile and think whether there lives a poltroon of a man who can hear such language and yet hold his peace.

### J. 1. b

(9) What is the true meaning of the accepted metaphors which are given correctly but misapplied in the following sentences:—

1. It is contact from without that is the chief means of *filling old bottles with new wine*.

2. In such an age, when girls were looked upon as a burden, how could the sacrament theory *hold water*?

3. In many cases the *earmarking* of an evil is its most natural cure.

4. This faith was shared by everybody—in short, by *all sorts and conditions of men*.



J. 1. c

(10) Why are the metaphors in the following sentences to be regarded as 'mixed':—

1. Thus, when the barriers broke down, the pendulum swung to the other extreme.
2. The Angel of Death has notched an illustrious name in the fateful scroll.
3. If India is ever to win a niche in the comity of nations she must do it for herself.
4. We call this a repressive policy which may clip the wings of the unfettered privilege of speech.
5. No sane man will ever countenance this clarion call.
6. With the strong right arm of the People's voice let us crush this haunting breath which casts its long shadow in discordant echoes along the dark corridors of the river of Time.

J. 2. a

(11) What accepted metaphors, do you suppose, were at the back of the writers' minds when they wrote the following:—

1. Humour *runs its deepest* when Imogen observes 'I see a man's life is a tedious one.'
2. The Nasik people *took the sea by its tide* when they reformed their municipal affairs before Government intervened.

J. 2. b

(12) Put into plain unmetaphorical English what you suppose to be the meaning of the following sentences with their nonce-metaphors:—

1. The committee will sift all the aspects of the military policy.
2. The threads of the story were there, but he put full life into the skeleton which he received from his model.

3. Here we have a humour of that dark velvety nature with a cat-like spring, clutching at the heart in a grip of spellbound horror and impatience.

4. The mistake goes on increasing until it reaches the high-water mark, when the tragic aspect appears in full colours.

5. This essayist delights in tossing the subject like a shuttle cock resonant with the battledore of humour.

6. The poisonous plant of child-marriage is still green, eating into the vitals of our people, like a little branch of reeds that bends and remains unuprooted when stormy winds sweep the tree-tops.

7. Under such circumstances had Queen Victoria—the soothing nurse—adorned the Crown of England, and Tennyson the Laureate Crown.

8. He has to take this risk on account of poverty that has to play in tune to the whims of the rich.

9. Let us hope that such books will still be written and keep fresh the never-failing brook of juvenile amusement.

10. Mrs. Gaskell now shoots forth a vein of sparkling humour, that sunny humour which soars so lightly and ever and anon peeps forth from her 'Cranford'.

## K

(13) Correct any misuse of titles in the following sentences:—

1. I met this week Mr. Upton Close, the famous author of 'The Revolt of Asia'. Mr. Upton believes that . . . .

2. Gaskell's humour in 'Cranford' is unfailing.

3. Mr. Bhulabhai Desai's speech on the occasion in the Assembly was very effective. Mr. Bhulabhai repeated that Government . . . .

4. A striking personality is Miss Mabel X. Miss Mabel, an American, leads the chorus in singing at prayer times.



## GENERAL TEST PAPERS

## TEST PAPER I

(1) What is wrong with the following advertisement:—

'Wanted immediately an attractive Lady, knowing Piano with ears for Music for selling Gramophone Records, etc.'?

(2) Give reasons for the misuse of articles in the following sentences:—

1. The Vice and the Virtue have always been in the same proportion in life.

2. This is a part and parcel of the coronation ceremony.

3. He had a French blood in him.

4. The report is in literary form and invites a study.

5. The police act as guardians of the internal order.

(3) 'Policemen in aeroplanes have hovered over the City of London watching the traffic. In the law-abiding the prospect of the *Man in Blue* becoming the *man in the blue* excites only a pleasant curiosity.'

What effect has the presence or absence of an article in the italicised phrases above?

## TEST PAPER II

(4) Explain briefly any corrections you find necessary in the use of adjectives or adverbs in the following:—

1. These are not mean leaders. They are held in high esteem for their services in the cause of social uplift.

2. But those were men who had lived friendly with bears all their lives long: bears might be friendly with them. (*Evening News*).

3. Mrs. Besant dedicated herself to the service of this country. We cannot forget her much useful work.

(5) Correct any errors in the following passage, noting especially any errors in the use of conjunctions:—

'If industry is carried out successfully and if it turns out satisfactory goods and makes a reasonable profit I have invariably noticed that large number of people think of

starting such industries and as soon as they produce similar goods they begin to cut down the prices until such time comes when the manufacturers are unable to make their bare existence; otherwise they try to reduce the quality and desire to become rich all of a sudden.'

## TEST PAPER III

(6) Why is the verb *keep* wrong in the following sentences? Replace it, in each case, with a verb suitable to the context:—

1. The book will be priced at two annas only to keep it within the reach of all.
2. A little before I went to bed I had carefully kept under the pillow all my Sanskrit books.
3. We asked the carter to unyoke the bullocks and keep them in the cowshed.
4. We should begin betimes to keep our house in order.
5. A wise man keeps aside a certain sum every month for a rainy day.

(7) What typical uses of English verbs are illustrated in the following sentences:—

1. Did you *call*?
2. No considerations *weigh* with him.
3. In a 'thriller' written not long since an airwoman lands in Regent's Park, picks up a policeman and *flies* him to where a body is lying, invisible to the terrestrial eye, on a roof. (*Evening News*.)
4. When I hear a bell, it is not through bits of the bell *striking* my ear-drums; it is through waves of sound, which the bell initiates, *striking against* my ear-drums. (Sir James Jeans, *The New Background of Science*, p. 22).
5. He for his own part would have been delighted to pardon the harmless little boyish frolic, had not its unhappy publicity rendered it impossible to *look* the freak over.
6. Couriers, it appears, are still *travelling* Germany in the interest of subversive organisations and their detention is essential. (*Times*.)



## TEST PAPER IV

(8) Define briefly the meaning of each verb italicised in the following passage:—

'The sort of thing I mean may be instanced in the various colloquial uses of the word *take*. Thus, a poet may *take* in his public, and the public may in consequence *take* to the poet, and he may then be *taken up* by eminent ladies; but perhaps a critic will *take down* the poet, and the poet may reply by *taking on* the critic, or, more wisely, by *taking him off*.' (Lascelles Abercrombie).

(9) Make three compound verbs from each of the following, and show the meaning of each compound verb you make by using it in a sentence of your own construction:—  
*get, put, pull, do*.

## TEST PAPER V

(10) Correct the word-order of the following sentences, and make also any vocabulary-corrections necessary:—

1. One wonders that if the Government is aware of the acute prevailing distress and the unparalleled depression, why has it not taken steps to protect the Presidency from its evil effects?

2. Several times the attention of the cotton trade was drawn regarding the defective trading methods in the columns of the *Chronicle* and now the inevitable tragic consequences have ensued.

3. Nor he dares to put the printer's name on the circular which the law requires and thus himself breaks the laws of a government to whom this scapegoat professes to be loyal to the core.

(11) The *Evening News* of the 10th August 1934 wrote:—

'A correspondent to a morning paper asks, "Why do we use the word *pacifist* instead of the good old English word *peace-maker*?"'

What reply would you give to this question?

(12) Make any necessary corrections in the use of *very* in the following:—

1. The *very* humour of such a reply !
2. It matters little if lives are sacrificed for the *very* dignity and freedom of a nation.
3. Mr. X. was escorted home by a grand procession with fireworks. That *very* night he left for Madras.
4. The lanes were so dark that he could hardly read their *very* names.
5. I refuse to tolerate their *very* presence.

### TEST PAPER VI

(13) Re-write the following sentences, correcting every misuse of words and phrases:—

1. The peasants contribute nearly 80% of the population.
2. The approaching monsoons are in the way of a full expression of their enthusiasm.
3. Terrorists, still blind to the error of their bloody ways, ill serve their country with murders that rouse the ire of the world. They are as gall and venom to the country's honour.
4. I have heard the rumbling sounds of a crumbling Empire. I have therefore thought it proper to raise the finger of alarm.
5. The arrest and internment of Mahatma Gandhi was soon followed by ordinances, which convulsed the public life of the City and Presidency.
6. The members of the War Council not yet arrested have hastened to Dharasana and are holding an emergent meeting.
7. Tennyson's *Elaine* is one of the humanised pieces of literature.
8. I am sure, Sir, you will please throw some light on this suggestion. At present some 5,000 or 10,000 such plates of armours may suffice to protect our volunteers. I am sure this appeal, if made, will not fall flat on several of our National Iron Works.



9. It is almost an impossible task for medical attendants to cope up with so many cases, but citizens of Bulsar have risen to the full height of their duty and are rendering very good help in giving relief to the wounded.

(14) Define carefully the meaning of the word *tuition*. Place a stress mark on the proper syllable to show how it should be pronounced. Finally, say if the following use of the word is correct:—

He gives many tuitions a week to pay for his studies.

### TEST PAPER VII

(15) The following interview appeared in an Indian newspaper. Re-write it in good English:—

*Dharasana, May 16.*

The Special representative of the Free Press of India had a short interview with —— at 4 p.m. to-day:—

*Question.*—How are you, ——?

*Answer.*—I am quite well.

*Q.*—But I was told that your feet have swollen. What of that?

*A.*—I have got heart disease, you know, and if I sit still for more than two hours, they would naturally swell.

*Q.*—How exactly you came away? Did the Police play ruse with you?

*A.*—No. Yesterday, whenever they offered me to go out for drinking water or for taking my meal I told them that I will not retrace. They must remain there and they said 'How can we arrest you? What would the world say?' and added 'You get sunstroke.' I told them that the only alternative was that they must take me out on a stretcher when I fell down. So this morning after 27 hours' Satyagraha they felt they must arrest me and my batch. They arrested me and my batch. They arrested us all, put us out of the cordon and released us immediately. That is how we are.

## WRITTEN ENGLISH

*Q.*—How did you sleep last night?

*A.*—Oh, I loved to sleep on hard earth in refreshing contrast to the Taj Mahal soft beds.

*Q.*—But how is it you did not faint? Surely you could not stand this May sun heat.

*A.*—I don't know myself. But this much I can say that I had made up my mind not to. About 7 in the evening I got up from my chair with a view to have a short stroll. But I felt giddy and I sat back again. Why, one of the volunteers, a Zamindar's son, very nearly fainted, but he went to sleep and got up refreshed. Another had his lips cracking with thirst. But when the Officer asked him to go out and have water, he said, 'No, certainly not.'

*Q.*—The morale of the Satyagrahis was a wonder. Was it not?

*A.*—Oh, it was more than I expected; for all the 27 hours there was no grumble, from a single man. They were absolutely staunch in their determination, so much so that even the Police officers were amazed.



## APPENDIX ON PREPOSITIONS

A small figure 1 attached to a preposition indicates that it is used to apply to time or space; a small figure 2 indicates that no reference to time or place is contained in the preposition. One and the same preposition may be used in both ways; hence *about*<sup>1</sup> and *about*<sup>2</sup>, *for*<sup>1</sup> and *for*<sup>2</sup>.

### A. Prepositions used with Local and Temporal meaning

#### ABOUT<sup>1</sup>.

(a) The primary local meaning (there is no temporal meaning) is 'round in every direction', e.g. :—

*Look about you before you cross the road.*

Other headwords used with *about* in this sense:—*to search, to stand.*

(b) The main secondary local meaning is 'action or skill in the execution of' a matter, because 'round in every direction' suggests 'envelopment' of the object, hence some command (or lack of command) of it, e.g. :—

(Verb) *to set* :—You must *set about* it quickly.

(Adj.) *clumsy* :—He is very *clumsy about* his work.

Further headwords :—(Adjs.) *quick, slow.*

#### At.

(a) Primary sense: position in the most general sense but limited in extent (hence not *at London*, but *in London*); point of time.

Ex. :—He is arriving *at* 1 o'clock and is staying *at* my uncle's.

Other headwords :—

(Adv. Adjuncts) : *at home, at Navsari, at variance, at once, at night, not at all.*

(Adj.) : *present.*

(Nouns) : *arrival, life, stay.*

## WRITTEN ENGLISH

(b) Secondary sense: measure of quantity or degree.

Ex. :—His income has been *estimated at* an immense figure.

(c) Another secondary sense: physical effort in front of or with regard to (verbs), physical capacity with regard to (Adjs. and nouns).

Exs. :—(Vb.) She *gazed at* him with astonishment.

(Adj.) He is *good at* figures.

(N.) The thief made a *snatch at* the bag.

Further headwords :—

(Intrans. verbs) *to fly, fumble, gape, glance, go, grin, jump, knock, labour, look, peep, run, stare, stick, tinker, work.*

(Intrans.—Trans. verbs, dual construction) *to aim, clutch, catch, fire, get, grasp, hit, keep, kick, play, scratch, snatch, start, strain, strike.*

(Intrans.—Trans., omitted object) *level, point, wink.*

(Trans. vbs.) *poke, throw.*

(Adjs.) *apt, bad, careful, careless, expert.*

(Nouns) *aim, blow, expertness, glance, look, peep, poke, wink, work.*

(d) A third secondary sense: physico-mental action or attitude in front of or in face of and with regard to.

Exs. :—(Vb.) It is better to *blush at* your own sins than at other people's.

(Adj.) He was *aghast at* what he heard.

(Ns.) Imagine our *amusement at* his discomfiture!

Further headwords :—

(Intrans. vbs.) *cavil, chuckle, connive, frown, grumble, hesitate, hint, jeer, jest, laugh, marvel, mock, murmur, rail, rebel, rejoice, scoff, smile, sneer, sniff, tremble, wonder.*

(Intr.—trans. dual constr.) *guess.*



(Trans.) *poke* (*fun at*).

(Adjs.) *amused, angry* (*at thing*), *annoyed* (*at thing*),  
*astonished, concerned, offended, piqued* (*thing*),  
*scandalized, shocked, surprised, vexed* (*thing*).

(Ns.) *aim, anger, astonishment, attempt, connivance,*  
*indignation, offence, pride, sneer, surprise, vex-*  
*ation* (*thing*), *wonder*.

## FOR<sup>1</sup>.

Has two primary meanings, one local suggesting the object or aim of movement and differing from *to* in pointing at the object rather than the direction of motion, the other temporal and suggesting duration.

(a) Primary local: object of movement.

Ex. :—We are *leaving for* the Continent tomorrow.

Further headwords:—

(Intrans. vbs.) *depart, go* ('attack'), *make, start*.

(Intrans. Trans, omitted, obj.) *change*.

(Adj.) *bound*.

(Ns.) *departure, start*.

(b) Primary temporal: duration.

Exs. :—(Adv. Adjts.) *for ever, for the duration of the war, for the next half hour*.

## FROM.

Expresses separation and points back to the place or time of departure. The idea of physical separation from place or time leads on to that physical or mental separation from thing or person which is the main secondary meaning. Many headwords which take *from* have Greek or Latin prefixes expressing separation, e.g. :—*a-* (*ab-*), *de-*, *dis-*, (*di-*), *e-* (*ex-*), *re-*.

(a) Primary: physical separation.

Ex. :—Mr. Brown will be away *from home from to-morrow*.

## WRITTEN ENGLISH

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(a) Primary: physical separation.

Ex. :—Mr. Brown will be away *from home from to-*  
*morrow*.

## WRITTEN ENGLISH

(b) Secondary : Physical or mental separation from person or thing. The transitive verb-headwords can be largely distinguished from each other according as they express separation of a person from a thing or a thing from a person, i.e. according as their subject is a person or a thing.

Exs. :—(Vb. Intr.) I am afraid I must *differ from* you.

(Vb. Intr.—Tr. with om. obj.) *Begin from* chapter 7.

(Vb. Tr. person from person or thing) They have *converted him from* his former views.

(Vb. Tr. 'thing from person') He has *inherited a large property from* his uncle.

(Vb. Tr. 'thing from thing') You can *infer his guilt from* his behaviour.

(Adj.) How *different from* each other members of one family can be !

(Noun) His *absence from* the meeting was noted by everyone.

Further headwords :—

(Vbs. Intr.) *abstain, depart, descend, desist, detract, deviate, digress, dissent, diverge, emanate, escape, fade, fast, flinch, forbear, pass, recede, recoil, refrain, result, retire, retreat, return, revolt, shrink, spring, suffer, vary.*

(Vbs. Intr.—Tr. with om. obj.) *beg, buy, derive, hide, import, learn, purchase, recover, remove, separate, shelter, withdraw.*

(Vbs. Tr. 'person from person or thing') *absent (refl.), convert, debar, deliver, detach, deter, disable, discourage, disqualify, dissuade, distinguish, distract, divert, divide, divorce, eject, emancipate, exclude, excuse, exempt, exile, exonerate, expel, extricate, free, guard, hinder, obstruct, preserve, prevent, prohibit, Profr. Satya Vrat Shastri Collection transfer.*



(Vbs. Tr. 'thing from person') *avert, borrow, conceal, demand, elicit, exact, expect, extort, extract, recover, withhold.*

(Vbs. Tr. 'thing from thing') *deduce, detach, differentiate, distinguish, divert, divide, erase, exclude, expunge, hinder, infer, rescue, retrieve, save, subtract, transfer.*

(Adjs.) *absent, distinct, distinguishable, far, free, immune, inseparable, proof, removed, safe, secure, separable.*

(Nouns) *absence, abstention* (and many nouns cognate with or derived from the above verbs and adjectives).

## IN.

Primarily suggests confinement in space or limitation in time. This meaning is easily extended to apply to a state or manner of action. Headwords of all kinds may be distinguished from each other as demanding either a personal or an impersonal subject. Headwords with Latin Prefix *in-* (*im-*) are common.

Exs.:—(Limited time) *in an hour, in the past, in these days.*

(State) *in haste.*

(Manner) *in this way.*

(Vbs. Intr.) 'personal subject':—I believe he *dabbles in astronomy.*

'impers. subj.':—This jungle *abounds in big game.*

(Vb. Intr.—Tr. with om. obj.):—He has *invested in railway shares.*

(Vbs. Tr.) 'person in thing':—Don't *hinder him in his work.*

(Vbs. Tr.) 'thing in person':—He *inspires no confidence in me.*

(Vbs. Tr.) 'thing in thing':—Insert an *advertisement in the newspaper.*

## WRITTEN ENGLISH

(Adjs.) 'person in thing':—He was very *profuse* in his thanks.

(Adjs.) 'thing in person':—There are great powers *latent* in him.

(Adjs.) 'thing in thing':—Such a course of action is *implicit* in your instructions.

(Nouns):—Who can have *faith* in such a person?

Further headwords:—

(Vbs. Intr.) 'personal subject':—*acquiesce, believe, confide, deal, delight, fail, fall* (in love), *glory, join, participate, persevere, persist, rejoice, revel, roll* (in wealth), *share, slacken, succeed, trust.*

(Vbs. Intr.) 'impersonal subject':—*centre, consist, culminate, end, increase, result.*

(Vbs. Intr.-Tr. with om. obj.):—*assist, indulge, merge, mingle.*

(Vbs. Tr.) 'person in thing':—*absorb* (refl.), *busy* (refl.), *employ, immerse, implicate, insinuate* (refl.), *instruct, introduce, involve, occupy, place, prevent, put, vest.*

(Vbs. Tr.) 'thing in person':—*inspire.*

(Vbs. Tr.) 'thing in thing':—*immerse, introduce, place, put.*

(Adjs.) 'person in thing':—*absorbed, concerned, engaged, engrossed, experienced, expert, fervent, fortunate, grounded, hardened, implicated, instrumental, interested, justified, learned, lost, mistaken, practised, proficient, slack, stupid, versed, zealous.*

(Adjs.) 'thing in person':—*ingrained, innate.*

(Adjs.) 'thing in thing':—*founded.*

(Adjs.) (universal use):—*deficient, fertile, lacking, poor, rich.*

(Nouns):—*Absorption, assistance, belief, concern, confidence, culmination, delight, experience, expertness, failure, fertility, fervour, indulgence, inquiry, instruction, interest, lesson, perseverance, persistence,*



*pleasure, practice, pride, profuseness, share, use*  
(with gerund).

# INTO.

Expresses motion from outside to within an object. This motion, primarily physical, easily becomes metaphorical. As explained elsewhere in this book, *in* used formerly to express 'motion into' as well as 'position within', so that some headwords (like *put, place*) still use *in* for *into*, but now *into* is used exclusively with all other headwords for motion of this kind. The Latin prefix *in-* (*im-*) appears again, since Latin *in* meant 'into' when governing the accusative case.

Exs. :—(Vb. Intr.) The train *steamed into* the station.  
(Literal.)

It is better not to *rake into* the ancient history of a family too far. (Metaphorical.)

(Vb. Intr.-Tr. with om. obj.) Shantilal *burst into* the room with his glad news.

(Vb. Tr.) They *assisted* the old man *into* his carriage.

(Noun) He has a remarkable *insight into* character.

## Further headwords :—

(Vbs. Intr.) :—*come, degenerate, develop, dip, dwindle, enter, fall, fly, immigrate, inquire, lapse, look, peer, penetrate, pitch (into = 'attack'), play (into one's hands), pry, relapse, run, rush, search, see, spy, tumble.*

(Vbs. Intr.-Tr. with om. obj.) :—*cut, divide, import, inject, launch, poke, pour, turn.*

(Vbs. Tr.) :—*coax, coerce, convert, insert, insinuate, instil, introduce, precipitate.*

(Adjs.) :—(apparently none).

(Nouns) :—*division, entrance, inquiry, import, inquisitiveness, relapse, search.*

## ON, UPON.

These have the same meaning, save that *upon* is a little more emphatic than *on*. Locally, they suggest physical position above and touching, rest on. From this arises the metaphorical sense of superiority of one thing to another, the consequences of such superiority, even opposition (e.g. *to declare war on*). The physical sense of 'rest on' suggests also support, hence dependence and parasitism. Temporally, *on*, *upon* suggest time fixed or an occasion (*on Sunday*); secondarily, an action dependent on a foregoing one (*On searching the cupboard, she found . . .*).

Exs. :—(Vbs. Intr.) *Lean on* my arm if you feel tired.  
(Literal.)

This book *grows on* one the more one reads it.  
(Metaphorical.)

He *sponged on* his relatives for his support.  
(Dependence.)

(Adj.) The bird's eyes were *riveted on* some object I could not see.

(Noun) City life is a *strain on* one's nerves.

## Further headwords :—

(Vbs. Intrans.) :—*act, agree, attend, blunder, calculate, call, centre, chance, comment, converge, count, decide, deliberate, depend, determine, devolve, dilate, discourse, dote, draw, dwell, embark, encroach, enlarge, enter, expatiate, experiment, fall, fasten, feast, fire, fix, frown, gain, gaze, gloat, grate, grow, hinge, hit, improve, indent, insist, intrude, lecture, light, live, meditate, muse, obtrude, pall, pause, play, pounce, practise, prevail, reason, rebound, reckon, reflect, rely, report, resolve, retaliate, ruminate, seize, sleep, smile, speak, spy, stand, stumble, venture, verge, wait.*

(Vbs. Intr.-Tr.) :—*concentrate, fatten, feed, impose, launch, seize, set, touch, turn, weigh.*



- (Vbs. Trans.) 'person on person':—*quarter, revenge* (refl.).
- (Vbs. Trans.) 'person on thing':—*compliment, congratulate, enlighten, regale, throw* (refl.), *pique* (refl.), *pride* (refl.), *value* (refl.).
- (Vbs. Trans.) 'thing on person':—*bestow, confer, enjoin, entail, impress, inflict, spend, urge, visit*.
- (Vbs. Trans.) 'thing on thing':—*inscribe, model, spend*.
- (Adjs.):—*bent, based, conditional, consequent, contingent, dependent, incumbent, founded, grounded, hard, intent, keen, mad, silent*.
- (Nouns):—*action, assault, attendance, authority, attack, claim, comment, congratulation, mercy, outlook, pity, run, satire, slur, stain, statement, tax*.

## OVER.

Meanings:—

(1) Position above, not pressing upon; sometimes covering:—

Ex.:—The boy's *lazy*; he doesn't work unless one *stands over* him.

(2) Movement above, whether touching or not:—

Ex.:—A car will *run over* that dog if it doesn't take care.

(3) Two metaphorical meanings:—

(a) Superiority in power or action:

Ex.:—She's a wife who *domineers over* her husband.

(b) Passionate or reflective reaction:

Ex.:—It's no use *crying over* spilt milk.

Further headwords:—

(1) (Vbs.):—*lean, hang*.

(2) (Vbs.):—*float, show*.

## WRITTEN ENGLISH

(3) (a) (Vbs. Trans.):—*set*.

(Vbs. Intrans.):—*get, labour, look, pass, pre-dominate, preside, prevail, reign, rule*.

(Nouns):—*command, control, domination, in-fluence, mastery*.

(b) (Vbs.):—*brood, chuckle, crow, exult, gloat, grumble, lament, laugh, linger, moan, mourn, pore, puzzle, ruminate, sorrow, talk, think, triumph, yearn*.

(Adjs.) *exultant, puzzled, etc.*

(Nouns):—*exultation, lamentation, etc.*

To<sup>1</sup>.

The general sense is 'motion in the direction of'. Verbs taking this preposition express action in the direction of, adjectives express an attitude with regard to, nouns—which are often made from the verbs and adjectives—express an act or attitude towards, or character or position with regard to, an object. Words with the Latin prefix *ad-* (also in the forms *ac-*, *al-*, *am-*, *ap-*, *as-*), meaning 'to', are very common; also there are verbs in *con-*, *in-*, *pre-*, *pro-*, *re-*, *sub-* which suggest this kind of motion.

Exs.:—(Vbs.) The difficulties *to which* he alludes do not amount to much.

(Adjs.) Remember, you are accountable *to* your family for this money.

(Nouns) There is no known *antidote to* this snake poison.

Further headwords:—

(Vbs. Intrans.):—*accede, adhere, advert, agree, apologize, appeal, aspire, assent, attend, bow, cling, come, conduce, conform, consent, converge, correspond, cringe, dance, defer, demur, descend, happen, listen, minister, object, occur, own* ('confess'), *pertain, point, pretend, proceed, recur, reply, resort, respond, revert, see, settle, speak, stand, stick, stoop, submit, succeed, succumb, tend, testify,*



(Vbs. Intr.-Tr.):—adjourn, answer, apply, confess, contribute, dictate, explain, get, incline, keep, lead, refer, return, subscribe, supply, surrender, take, transfer, yield.

(Vbs. Trans.):—accord, accustom, adapt, adjust, admit, appoint, appropriate, arrogate, ascribe, assign, attach, break, bring, challenge, charge, commend, commit, communicate, commute, compare, compel, condemn, confide, confine, consecrate, consign, cut, dedicate, devote, doom, entitle, entrust, expose, give, grudge, impute, instigate, introduce, inure, invite, join, level, liken, limit, marry, owe, pledge, prefer, present, promote, provoke, reconcile, reduce, resign (refl.), restore, restrict, sacrifice, sentence, steel (refl.), subject, treat.

(Adjs.):—accountable, accustomed, etc., adverse, akin, alien, alive, amenable, analogous, appropriate, averse, awake, beneficial, blind, callous, contrary, conducive, congenial, convenient, deaf, derogatory, detrimental, disinclined, equal, equivalent, faithful, false, foreign, frank, grateful, hardened, hospitable, impervious, indifferent, inferior, insensible, insensitive, inured, just, kind, lenient, liable, lost, near, obedient, obliged, obstructive, open, opposed, opposite, partial, perpendicular, privy, prone, repugnant, responsible, senior, sensitive, subject, subordinate, superior, susceptible, true. -

(Nouns):—access, adhesion, etc., analogy, antidote, antipathy, antithesis, attestation, aversion, bias, convert, (take a) disinclination, fancy, fidelity, gratitude, incentive, kindness, liking, means, preface, prelude, recourse, regard, relevance, respect, sensibility, sensitiveness, tendency.

## WITH<sup>1</sup>.

Expresses opposition and is equivalent to 'against'.

Exs.:—(Vb.) You cannot compete with a man of his strength.

## WRITTEN ENGLISH

(Adj.) She was very *cross* with her sister this afternoon.

(Noun):—Some people get at *variance* with everybody else.

Further headwords:—

(Vbs. Intrans.):—*argue, bargain, clash, close, conflict, contend, cope, deal, differ, fight, grapple, haggle, intercede, interfere, meddle, meet, plead, prevail, quarrel, reason, remonstrate, strive, struggle, vie, war, wrestle.*

(Vbs. Intrans.-Trans):—*dispute, exchange.*

(Vbs. Trans.):—*join (battle), match, measure.*

(Adjs.):—*angry, indignant, mad.*

(Nouns.):—*bargain, etc., enmity.*

*B. Prepositions used with Non-Local and Non-Temporal meaning.*

ABOUT<sup>2</sup>.

Has the general sense of 'concerning'.

Headwords:—

(Vbs. Intrans.):—*boast, brag, care, complain, despair, fidget, get, hesitate, jest, joke, kick, laugh, murmur, quarrel, rejoice, scoff, see, smile, sneer, speak, talk.*

(Vbs. Tr.-Intr.):—*consider, dream, guess, know, meditate, reason, speculate, think, wonder.*

(Vbs. Tr.):—*assure, believe, convince, inform, judge, know, relate, remind, report, satisfy, warn.*

(Adjs.):—*afraid, alarmed, ambitious, amused, angry, annoyed, anxious, ashamed, aware, careful, careless, certain, concerned, confident, conscious, curious, disappointed, disgusted, furious, glad, good, hopeful, ignorant, independent, indignant, inquisitive, irritable, irritated, jealous, kind, negligent, nice, offended, particular, patient, proud, sanguine, satis-*



*fied, scrupulous, sensible, short, shy, silent, solicitous, sore, sure, tired, troubled, vain, worried.*

(Ns.):—*agitation, alarm, amusement, anxiety, complaint, concern, doubt, indignation, inquisitiveness, kindness, nervousness, scruple, silence, solicitude, thought, trouble, etc.*

FOR<sup>2</sup>.

Begins by expressing (1) an aim or tendency of feelings or mental powers towards an end, passing on to (2) the aim of action towards obtaining an end (Purpose). Different in origin are other meanings:—(3) exchange, substitution; (4) 'on 'account of', 'because of'; (5) 'on behalf of', 'in favour of'.

Headwords:—

(1) (Vbs.):—*aspire, care, crave, feel, gasp, grieve, hanker, hope, hunger, lament, long, mourn, pine, sorrow, thirst, wish, yearn.*

(Adjs.):—*anxious, concerned, eager, grateful, impatient, indebted, sorry, thankful, vexed, zealous.*

(Ns.):—*affection, ambition, anxiety, appetite, aspiration, compassion, consideration, contempt, demand, desire, distaste, eagerness, fancy, fascination, fear, fondness, gratitude, greed, hatred, hope, inclination, liking, longing, mania, memory, mind, passion, partiality, pity, preference, rage, regard, regret, repentance, sorrow, taste, thirst, sympathy, wish, zeal.*

(2) (Vbs.):—*appeal, apply, arrange, ask, beg, call, cater, clamour, compete, fight, grope, hunt, inquire, labour, live, look, move, pause, pray, prepare, prescribe, provide, qualify, scramble, search, seek, send, stand, strike, strive, struggle, sue, try, vote, wait, want, watch, work*

(Adjs.):—*competent, destined, disqualified, educated, eligible, fit, fitted, game, good, liable, made, prepared, propitious, proper, qualified, ready, ripe, sufficient, suitable, suited, useful.*

## WRITTEN ENGLISH

(Ns.):—ability, aptitude, application, arrangement, candidate, capacity, competence, competition, cure, eligibility, fitness, food, help, hunt, leisure, motive, margin, necessity, need, occasion, opportunity, order, preparation, prescription, qualification, readiness, reason, request, remedy, room, scramble, search, signal, specific, treatment, watch.

(3) (Vbs.):—change, commute, die, exchange, mistake, officiate, pass, substitute, take.

(Adjs.):—mistaken, substituted, taken.

(Ns.):—substitute, synonym.

(4) (Vbs.):—account, allow, apologise, answer, charge, condemn, compensate, forgive, pardon, pay, punish, reward, suffer.

(Adjs.):—answerable, apologetic, celebrated, contemptible, eminent, famous, noted, obliged, popular, pressed (for time), proverbial, responsible.

(Ns.):—allowance, amends, apology, care, compensation, credit, excuse, expiation, explanation, fine, justification, proverb, recompense, reputation, responsibility, reward, satisfaction.

(5) (Vbs.):—answer, apologize, vouch.

(Adjs.):—answerable.

(Ns.):—authority, cause, cloak, plea, precedent, reason, surety.

To<sup>2</sup>.

This has rather a constructional or grammatical use than any definite meaning of its own, which, so far as it still exists, derives from that of *to*, viz., 'interest or action in the direction of'. Of the two grammatical uses, (1) replaces what would be the dative-construction in Latin and other synthetic languages (e.g. German); (2) takes the *to*-infinitive of a verb after it.

(1) (Vbs.):—belong, happen, say, owe.

(Adjs.):—akin, common, detrimental, doomed, due, engaged, entitled, evident, fatal, galling, helpful.



*indebted, inferior, irksome, irrelevant, natural, necessary, obvious, patent, peculiar, permissible, pertinent, precedent, prejudicial, present, propitious, proportionate, relevant, sacred, similar, welcome.*

(Ns.):—*claim, clue, detriment, example, exception, heir, help, hindrance, impediment, key, kin, limit, martyr, party, prejudice, prey, proportion, rebel, resemblance, sacrifice, similarity, testimony, title, traitor, tribute, victim.*

(2) (Vbs.):—*attempt, decide, expect, fail, help, propose, train, try.*

(Adjs.):—*accustomed, aching, apt, entitled, meet, obliged, meant, designed.*

(Ns.):—*attempt, decision, effort, failure, means, obligation.*

## WITH<sup>2</sup>

Has two, and quite distinct, senses. The first expresses the 'association' of one person or thing with another; the second expresses 'Instrumentality'.

(1) (Vbs.):—*accord, acquaint, agree, alternate, associate, blend, bear, chat, class, coincide, commune, communicate, compare, comply, concern (refl.), concur, condole, confer, conform, confound, confuse, connect, consult, contract, contrast, co-operate, correspond, couple, dally, deal, disagree, get on, hold, incorporate, identify, intrigue, join, level, lodge, make away, make off, mix, originate, parley, persevere, play, rank, reconcile, share, side, square, stand, stand well, sympathize, talk, tally, trade, vary, visit, weigh.*

(Adjs.):—*acquainted, allied, associated, commensurate, compatible, concerned, consonant, consistent, contemporary, conversant, decent, even, familiar, frank, free, friendly, identical, impatient, intimate, level, open, patient, popular, reconciled, safe, short, square, synonymous, yoked.*

(Ns.):—*accomplice, accordance, acquaintance, affinity, agreement, alliance, analogy, association, alternation, collusion, commerce, communion, comparison, compatibility, compliance, complicity, communication, concert, concurrence, conformity, confusion, conjunction, connection, consonance, contact, contract, contrast, conversation, co-operation, correspondence, dalliance, dealings, disagreement, engagement, equality, familiarity, favourite, freedom, friends, friendship, identity, influence, intercourse, interview, intimacy, part partner(ship), patience, peace, piece, popularity, relations, share, sympathy, talk, trade, traffic, weight.*

(2) (Vbs.):—*abound, amuse, annoy, astonish, arm, begin, burden, busy (refl.), charge, conjure, content (refl.), do, entrust, experiment, fidget, furnish, imbue, impress, inspire, invest, occupy (refl.), perish (cold), ply, quake, provide, reproach, sate, satiate, satisfy, supply, start, tamper, taunt, tax, teem, threaten, thrill, tinker, tremble, trifle, trust, upbraid, vest, vex.*

(Adjs.):—*abounding, afflicted, alive, amused, beset, blest, busy, busied, clothed (majesty), confronted, concerned, content, cursed, disappointed, delighted, discontented, disgusted, displeased, dissatisfied, drunk, exhausted, flooded, flushed, fraught, free (money), gifted, honoured, ill, impregnated, infected, inspired, instinct, inundated, invested, moved (pity), occupied, paralysed, pleased, possessed (idea), pregnant, replete, satisfied, tired, overcome.*

(Ns.):—*concern, contentment, discontent, displeasure, dissatisfaction, experiment, satisfaction.*











